

HIGHROADS OF HISTORY

FIFTH
BOOK



ROYAL
SCHOOL
SERIES

THOMAS NELSON AND SONS LTD

E. H. Parker

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Cranmer at Traitors' Gate.

(From the picture by F. Goodall, R.A., in South Kensington Museum.)

THE ROYAL SCHOOL SERIES

Highroads of History

Illustrated by the great Historical Paintings of
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Book V.—Tudor and Stuart
(1485 to 1688)

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Tudor and Stuart.

I. AN ELECTED KING.

1. To-day we will visit Westminster Abbey and make our way to the chapel of King Henry the Seventh, the most magnificent part of the whole building. The first stone of this superb chapel was laid seventeen years after the battle of Bosworth Field, "on the 24th daie of January, a quarter of an houre afore three of the clocke at after noone," but it was not completed until after the king's death.

2. Notice the entrance gates. They are of bronze, mounted on oak, and are ornamented with the united roses of York and Lancaster, and other Tudor badges. The vaulted roof, with its airy network of stone and its wealth of carving, is almost unrivalled in beauty. At the eastern end is the tomb of Henry the Seventh and his wife, Elizabeth of York. Above the richly-carved stalls you see the banners of the Knights of the Bath, to whose use the chapel is assigned.

3. Now, standing within this splendid monument of the first Tudor king, let us learn something of the man and his work. You already know that he found England in a state



[Photo by King.]

HENRY THE SEVENTH'S CHAPEL, WESTMINSTER ABBEY, SHOWING THE TOMB
OF HENRY AND ELIZABETH OF YORK.

of great unrest and disorder. For thirty years the Wars of the Roses had distracted the land and prevented the nation from advancing. The power of the nobles had been destroyed, and the people were weary of tumult and strife. They longed for a strong king who would reconcile the two rival houses, and bring peace and prosperity to the land. Henry was just the man the nation then needed. He was clever, steadfast, patient, and strong-willed, and, above all, a lover of peace. During his reign he did many illegal things, but the people bore them patiently, for they remembered the state of misery from which he had rescued them.

4. Henry claimed the throne by inheritance, but he was well aware that his claim would not stand scrutiny. You already know that he only belonged to the kingly line through his mother, who was the great-granddaughter of Edward the Third's fourth son. He might equally well have called himself king by conquest, but he made no claim to the throne as a conqueror. Parliament, however, paid little or no attention to these questions, but simply declared that Henry and no other should be king of the land, and that his heirs should succeed him. Thus Henry did not wear the crown by right of birth, or because he had defeated Richard the Third in battle, but because Parliament agreed to accept him as king. The Act of Parliament which established Henry on the throne is worth our careful attention, because it asserted once more the old right of the English people to elect their king.

5. Before the Norman Conquest the Witan, which was supposed to represent the people, had always possessed the right of electing and, if necessary, deposing the king.

Usually it made its choice from members of the royal house, but not always, as in the case of King Harold. When William the Conqueror established the feudal system in this country, the lawyers tried to do away with this old right of the people. They said that just as a man's lands descended to his heir, so the king's crown descended to the king's heir—that is, they regarded the throne as the estate of the king, and not as the gift of the nation. The people, however, never fully accepted this doctrine, and continued to claim a voice in the election of their kings.

6. The rule that the last king's heir should succeed to the throne was not established until the reign of Edward the Second. He claimed the crown by right of descent from his father, and no mention was made of the consent of barons or people. Nevertheless he was deposed by Parliament and his son elected in his stead. So, too, Richard the Second was deposed by Parliament and the crown given to his cousin, Henry the Fourth, the real heir being passed over. Even during the Wars of the Roses, when might was right, Parliament was several times called upon to settle and re-settle the succession to the throne.

7. The election of Henry the Seventh by Parliament is important, because it shows us that all down the centuries Englishmen held fast by the principle that no English king is king by inheritance alone, but by the consent of his people. In after years, when Parliament grew to be the strongest power in the country, it twice settled the succession to the throne; and now no one denies that Parliament, as representing the nation, has the absolute right to say who shall wear the crown.

8. Now, though Parliament had elected Henry king, and by his marriage with Elizabeth of York he had united the claims of the rival houses, there were still a number of reckless Yorkists who plotted and rebelled against him. Within the first six months of his reign they rose in arms, and within the next twelve years they fought for several pretenders to the throne. These attempts to oust Henry were forlorn hopes, and ended in dismal failure.

9. The first of these impostors was Lambert Simnel, the ten-year-old son of an Oxford tradesman. He had been carefully trained by a priest to personate the young Earl of Warwick, the only male heir of the house of York. He first made his appearance in Ireland, where the people had always been favourable to the "White Rose." Amidst much enthusiasm he was crowned king in Christchurch Cathedral, Dublin, and a small army of four thousand men was raised for him. With these and some German hired soldiers he landed in Lancashire, and was joined by a few desperate Yorkists.

10. A battle was fought at Stoke, near Newark, and Simnel's ill-assorted army of Irishmen and Germans was cut to pieces. After the battle Henry showed himself as merciful to his prisoners as he had been after the battle of Bosworth Field. He pardoned all who submitted to him; and as for the pretender, he made him a scullion in the royal kitchen. Some years later Henry amused himself by making Simnel hand dishes at a royal banquet to the Irish barons who had crowned the lad with such pomp and circumstance in the cathedral at Dublin.

11. The second pretender was far more formidable. Four years after an end had been made of Simnel's attempt, a handsome young man appeared in Cork and proclaimed himself Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the two princes said to have been murdered in the Tower. For seven years this young man, whose real name was Perkin Warbeck, troubled the kingdom. He was supported with men and money by the sister of Edward the Fourth, Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, who hated Henry, and was ready to assist any one who would strike a blow at him. Warbeck was also supported by James the Fourth of Scotland and Charles the Eighth of France; but their efforts were all in vain. He made several unsuccessful attempts to invade the country, and at last, in the year 1497, during a time of great unrest in Cornwall, he landed in that county, and gathered six thousand men about him.

12. Henry met him at Taunton, but the night before the battle Warbeck lost heart and fled to sanctuary. His followers dispersed, the leaders were taken and hanged, and Warbeck, upon promise of his life, gave himself up and was lodged in the Tower. Here he made the acquaintance of Warwick, the prince whom Simnel had personated. The two prisoners hatched a plot, but it was revealed to the king, who now determined to rid himself of both his troublesome guests. Henry was probably driven to this course by the appearance of a third impostor, who also personated Warwick. With the execution of the earl and Warbeck all danger to the security of Henry's throne passed away. Thenceforth he ruled in peace.

2. "THE SOLOMON OF ENGLAND."

1. You already know that the nobles had so weakened themselves during the Wars of the Roses that Henry was enabled to rule as an absolute king. He was determined that those nobles who remained should never again be able to threaten the throne. The great lords had been accustomed to maintain a large number of retainers, who wore the livery of their patron, and in return for his protection in their quarrels and lawsuits held themselves ready to do his bidding. This was a very evil custom, for it permitted and encouraged the lords to wage little private wars on their own account, and enabled them to join together and overawe the king himself. Henry was determined to abolish this state of things, and Parliament passed an Act which forbade any lord to keep more than a certain number of retainers.

2. On one occasion Henry paid a visit to his oldest friend, De Vere, Earl of Oxford, at his castle of Hemmingham. As he left the castle Henry passed between two long lines of men all wearing the De Vere livery, and drawn up to do him kingly honour. When he asked who these men were, he was told that they were the earl's retainers. Turning to his host the king said, "By my faith, I may not endure to have my laws broken in my sight. My attorney must speak with you." The result was that the Earl of Oxford was fined the large sum of £15,000. In this way the king put an end to the small armies maintained by the great lords.

3. He aimed a further blow at them by setting up a special court of justice known as the Star Chamber, because

it met at Westminster in a room with a pattern of stars on the ceiling. This court consisted of a few trusted members of the Privy Council, whose business it was to see that justice was dealt out to those who were so rich and powerful that the ordinary courts of the land dared not punish them.

4. The king meant to make his justice felt from one end of the land to the other by all men, rich or poor, high or low, and by means of the Star Chamber he was enabled to do so. The new court could inflict any punishment short of death, but it usually condemned the offender to pay a heavy fine. There was no jury in Star Chamber trials, and this, at first, enabled justice to be done no matter how rich and powerful the offender might be. In later reigns the absence of a jury enabled the Star Chamber to become a great engine of oppression, and to do so much injustice in such an un-English way that it was bitterly hated by the people. It was abolished in 1641, after it had lasted one hundred and fifty-four years.

5. Henry meant to be an absolute king, and for this reason he did not summon many Parliaments. Of course he needed money to carry on the government, and this he chiefly obtained, not in the lawful way by grants from Parliament, but by all sorts of illegal means. Two of his judges, for example, busied themselves in searching out old forgotten laws. Many persons who had unwittingly broken these laws were haled before the courts and forced to pay heavy sums into the king's treasury. As his coffers filled Henry became fonder and fonder of amassing money, not so much because he was a miser, but because he knew that a

well-filled purse would keep him secure on his throne, and enable him to rule without a Parliament.

6. Another illegal method by which Henry raised funds was to force people to lend him money which he did not intend to repay. These forced loans were called "Benevolences." They had been declared illegal in the reign of Richard the Third, but Henry said that as Richard was a usurper his laws had no force. His chief agent in securing these benevolences was his chancellor, Archbishop Morton, who invented an argument which is known as "Morton's Fork," because by means of it he was able to secure all his victims with one or other of its prongs. "If you live at great expense," he was accustomed to say, "you are able to subscribe handsomely; if you live sparingly, you must have saved, and can afford to pay out of your savings." When Henry died he left to his son the colossal fortune, for those days, of £1,800,000.

7. Henry had a difficult and dangerous task before him when he became King of England; nevertheless he did a good work for his land, and he deserves to rank with our greatest statesmen. He found England weak, unruly, and poor; he left her strong, orderly, and prosperous. He was a man of peace, and he kept out of Continental wars as far as possible. England was then but a third-rate power, with only a population of about three and a half millions, a weak army, and a navy which was not kept on a war footing. As yet she could hardly expect to take an important place amongst the European powers. Henry therefore devoted himself largely to home affairs.

8. He understood clearly that trade was the mainstay of

his kingdom, and therefore he favoured merchants and protected their interests. While he crushed the power of the nobility, and made Parliament of little or no account, he enabled traders to become prosperous, and thus helped in raising up those who were to become, in the course of time, the chief power in the kingdom.

9. Henry lived during a period of great change. A movement which was almost to transform the world was then sweeping over Europe. What this movement was and what its results were we shall learn in a later lesson. So great was the change which it brought about that historians rightly regard the reign of Henry the Seventh as the beginning of modern history.

3. THE CABOTS.

1. Come with me to the fine old city of Bristol. It is one of the oldest places in the country, and is full of memories of past ages. There was a town on the site in the days of the ancient Britons, and the Romans occupied it in later years. In the unhappy reign of Ethelred the Unready it was so important that it had a mint of its own and struck silver pennies. Later on it became infamous because of its slave market. In the fourteenth century it was full of rich and enterprising merchants, who owned large fleets of ships, and traded with all the sea-board countries of Europe. Next to London, Bristol was then the first seaport of the country.

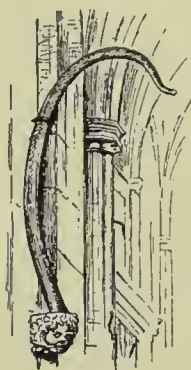
2. Let us make our way to St. Mary Redcliffe, the finest of the many fine churches of Bristol. We go in by

the western entrance, and there find the object of our quest. It is the rib of a cow-whale, and is fastened up to one of the pillars. The sexton who points it out to us tells us that it was placed in the church as far back as the year 1497 by Sebastian Cabot, when he returned from his famous voyage.

3. The men of Bristol are very proud of Sebastian Cabot, and of his father, John Cabot. If we go to the suburb of Clifton we shall see a famous suspension bridge spanning the picturesque gorge of the Avon. Near the bridge stands a tower known as the Cabot Tower. It has been erected in memory of these two men. Why do the people of Bristol thus honour them?

4. Now, before I answer this question, let us recall the days of Henry the Seventh. His reign will always be remembered as the golden age of geographical discovery. While the Wars of the Roses were raging the Portuguese were pushing across unknown seas along the west coast of Africa, bent on discovering a road to India. They did this because the old land routes to the East were occupied by the Turks, who had stopped all trade.

5. When Henry came to the throne there was a Genoese seaman, named Christopher Columbus, who had formed a great design, and was seeking, though vainly, to carry it out. He had heard strange stories of trunks of trees, reeds, pieces of carved wood, and other products of unknown lands, which had been picked up by sailors during their voyages. All these had drifted to Europe from the west, over the wild waste of waters then known as the Western Ocean.



CABOT RELIC
IN ST. MARY
REDCLIFFE.

6. In his early years Columbus had sailed to Iceland, and there had heard old Norse tales about a distant land across the sea towards the sunset. After years of study and thought he had come to the conclusion that the unknown country far away to the west was India. He was eager to brave the dangers of the Western Ocean and prove the truth of his belief. From prince to prince he had gone, unfolding his plans, and had been laughed to scorn for his pains. At last, in the year 1487, he sent his brother Bartholomew to England, to try to win the ear of King Henry, who was known to be greatly interested in the work of exploration.

7. Bartholomew sailed for England, but on the way his ship was captured by pirates, and he became a galley-slave. At length he escaped and reached London, but he was at first so ill, and then so poor, that he could not gain access to the king. For a time he supported himself by making charts and globes, and at length he was introduced to Henry, whom he presented with a map of the world. Then Bartholomew told the king of his brother's plans. Henry listened to him, and promised his help, but put the matter off from day to day. Meanwhile Columbus had persuaded Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain to fit out an expedition for him. So you see that, but for a series of accidents, Columbus would have made his voyage under the patronage of an English king.

8. On August 3, 1492, Columbus sailed from Palos with three ships no larger than the coasting schooners of our own day. Westward and ever westward he sailed, and on the morning of October 12 he saw before him one of



The Departure of John and Sebastian Cabot on their First Voyage of Discovery, 1497.

(From the picture by Ernest Board. By permission of the Bristol Corporation and the Artist.)

the Bahama Islands. He annexed it in the name of Spain, and then visited Cuba and Haiti. On March 15, 1493, he returned to Spain, bearing the wondrous news.

9. Naturally this created a great stir in all the seaports of Europe, and the keen merchants of Bristol were not slow to see what great possibilities of trade there were in the new lands just discovered. At this time there was living at Bristol a seaman of Genoese birth named John Cabot. He, too, had made voyages of exploration, and had come to England in the hope of securing help from Henry. When he heard the news of Columbus's success he went to the king, who granted him, in the year 1495, a patent, made out to himself and his three sons, for the discovery and conquest of unknown lands.

10. Now look at the beautiful picture on page 19. It shows you the departure of John and Sebastian Cabot from Bristol one May morning in the year 1497. Their expedition of two ships, one called the *Matthew*, sailed down the Avon and steered directly north-west, in the hope of reaching China, then called Cathay. For nearly two months they sailed on, and at last reached a sea in which "monstrous, great lumps of ice" were floating and there was continual daylight. On June 24 they sighted land. It was the coast of the dreary country now known as Labrador.

11. John and Sebastian Cabot hastened to land, and they were the first Europeans since the days of the Vikings to set foot on the mainland of the New World. They found natives dressed in skins, and brought three of them home for Henry to see. Then they sailed along the coast

for three hundred leagues, and discovered a large island, which they called Newfoundland. Only when provisions began to fail did they turn back to England.

12. The Cabots returned from this famous voyage at the end of July, and reported that they had found new lands in the Northern Ocean rich in mines of copper. In one of King Henry's account books there is this entry: "To him that found the new isle, £10," which was, of course, a very much larger sum then than now. Next year John Cabot sailed westward again, this time with a small fleet of five ships, but we do not know what happened to him. Probably the expedition was lost, for nothing more can be learnt about it.

13. Sebastian continued the family work of exploration. He is said to have sailed from Bristol in 1517, and to have discovered the bay and strait now known as Hudson Bay and Hudson Strait. In 1526 he explored the coast of South America, and seven years later was made Governor of the Merchant Adventurers, a body of London citizens who were eager to open up new countries for trade. Chiefly owing to his exertions Russia was visited by British seamen, and trade was begun with the country of the Tsar.

14. I have told you the story of the Cabots to show you that Englishmen had some part in the great discoveries that were being made during the reigns of Henry the Seventh, Henry the Eighth, Edward the Sixth, and Queen Mary. Though England had a share in these discoveries, it was but a small share. She was not yet ready for the great work of empire-building which she was to do in later times.

4. "THE NEW LEARNING."

1. To-day we will visit St. Paul's Churchyard, London. Country cousins may perhaps expect that we are going to examine the tomb of some great historic character. They will probably be surprised to learn that St. Paul's Churchyard is now the name of a busy street, thronged every day with shoppers and window-gazers. We walk along the street, and come to a halt before a large shop, on which there is an inscription proclaiming that here stood the famous St. Paul's School, founded by John Colet, dean of the neighbouring cathedral, in the year 1509. For three hundred and seventy-five years St. Paul's School stood on this site. In 1884 it was removed to new premises at Hammersmith.

2. Now why have we come to see the site of this old school? There are many older schools in England, and even in the city of London the Mercers' School claims an older foundation. St. Paul's School is not remarkable for its great age, but for the fact that it was one of the direct results of that great revival of learning which spread over Europe in the fifteenth century, and led to such vast changes in the thoughts, the lives, and the fortunes of mankind.

3. It is hard to say exactly when this revival of learning began, just as it is hard to tell the precise day on which spring begins and ends, but 1453 marks a very important phase in the spread of this great movement. In that year Constantinople, the capital of the Greek Empire, was captured by the Turks, and the Greek scholars living in the city fled to the shores of Italy, which was then the most

civilized land in all the world. These Greek scholars settled down in Florence, and began to teach their noble language and to lecture on the great writers of their land. The Italian scholars flocked to hear them, and soon the study of Greek became all the rage.

4. The study of Greek opened up to the scholars of Western Europe the great writings of the poets, historians, and philosophers of ancient Greece. For the first time the scholars of Western Europe were enabled to feed their minds upon the great thoughts of great men, uttered in the noblest language of olden times. They were able, too, to read the New Testament in the tongue in which it was written.

5. They studied also the splendid sculptures and the buildings of ancient Greece, and began to imitate them and strive to surpass them. From one study they turned to another. They re-read the works of the great Latin writers with a new interest and with a wider knowledge. Searches were made for old manuscripts, and the Bible in the original tongue was rediscovered. For many years the studies of scholars had been limited to a few worn-out and barren subjects. Now they found a new world of knowledge awaiting them.

6. While all this was going on, men discovered to their amazement that the world itself was a much vaster and more remarkable world than they had thought it to be. As you learnt in the last lesson, Portuguese mariners coasted along the shores of Africa, and made their way to the wondrous land of India, with its riches of silk and ivory, gold and pearl. Then Columbus crossed the unknown Atlantic, and



PORTRAIT OF HENRY VIII.

(By Hans Holbein the Younger. From the Royal Gallery at Windsor.)

revealed a new world waiting to be added to the old. The Cabots, threading their way amongst the icebergs of Labrador, had actually set foot on the shores of this New World. This sudden contact with new lands and new races roused men's minds, and made them full of a strange curiosity. They were eager to learn. The men of that age had, as it were, awaked out of the sleep of centuries.

7. The fame of the “new learning” soon spread to England, and English scholars crossed the Alps to sit at the feet of the Greek teachers. One of the first Englishmen to study Greek at Florence was William Grocyn, of New College, Oxford. On his return he lectured on Greek in his own university, and students flocked to hear him. Thomas Linacre, another Oxford scholar, also went to Italy, and studied the old Greek writers on medicine. He became doctor to Henry the Eighth, and played a large part in founding the College of Physicians.

8. The Englishman who did most to bring the “new learning” to England was John Colet, the founder of St. Paul's School. He was the son of a rich man who had been twice Lord Mayor of London. After studying at Oxford and entering the Church, young Colet travelled to Italy and there learnt Greek. He did not spend his time in reading the great writers of ancient Greece, but devoted himself to the study of the New Testament in its original form. He was not satisfied with many of the religious practices of his time, and was determined to take his guidance only from the Scriptures. For this reason he did his utmost to find out the real meaning of the Bible text.

9. Colet did not believe in the wonder-working power

of relics, nor did he consider that pilgrimages were of great value. Once he went to the shrine of St. Thomas of Canterbury, and was shown the jewels, the costly carvings, and the rich metal work with which it was overlaid. Colet was not impressed with what he saw, and said, "St. Thomas gave all to the poor in his lifetime, and I am sure he would prefer that they should possess all this wealth now heaped around him." When the guardians of the shrine offered him the relics of the martyr to venerate and his shoe to kiss, he thrust them aside with impatience. He wished to free religion from the errors which had grown up around it, and his teaching did much to make men accept the "new worship" when the time came.

10. Henry the Eighth was a very fair scholar, and he was favourable to the "new learning." When he came to the throne, Colet began his great work by founding St. Paul's School. One of the frescoes in the Royal Exchange, London, shows Henry presenting the charter of the school to Colet, who devoted himself to his new task. The old text-books were found to be useless, and Colet and his friends wrote new grammars for the boys. One of these friends was Erasmus, who is numbered with the greatest scholars who ever lived. When Colet returned from Italy, Erasmus was young and almost unknown. He longed to go to Italy to study, but lacked the necessary means. In one of his letters he wrote: "I have given up my whole soul to Greek learning, and as soon as I get any money I shall buy Greek books—and then I shall buy some clothes." As he could not go to Italy he went to Oxford, and there listened to the teaching of Grocyn.

11. “I found at Oxford,” he writes in one of his letters, “so much polish and learning, that now I hardly care about going to Italy at all. When I listen to my friend Colet, it seems like listening to the great philosopher Plato himself. Who does not wonder at the wide range of Grocyn’s knowledge? What can be more searching, deep, and refined than the judgment of Linacre? When did Nature mould a temper more gentle, endearing, and happy than the temper of Thomas More?”

12. The Thomas More whom Erasmus mentions afterwards became one of the leading men in the movement and chancellor of the realm. He was a very learned and clever man, with a sunny, happy disposition, and a wit that could provoke both laughter and tears. He was devoted to his children. He loved teaching them, and was as fond of their pets and games as they were. “I have given you kisses enough,” he once wrote to his children, “but stripes hardly ever.” You will hear about his sad fate in a later lesson. Here I must tell you that he is chiefly remembered for his book called “Utopia”—that is, “Nowhere.”

13. In this book he pictures a land where all things are as he would have them be: where all people strive for the welfare of each other; where all have to work for their living, and no one has to work too hard; where all are taught in the schools; where all live in good houses, with plenty of light, air, comfort, and cleanliness; where the law is always just and the punishment fits the crime, and every one has a chance to live a useful and honest life. Utopia was the very opposite to the England which More knew, and his book was an attempt to show how things might be altered for the better.

14. Thus by teaching, preaching, writing, and example, this little band of scholars prepared the way for better education and a purer religion in England. Their great ally was the printing press, which every year sent forth more and more books to open men's minds and show them the vast field of activity which lay before them. Our modern literature, science, and art all took their origin from this revival of learning. Especially did it pave the way for the Reformation.



5. THE GREAT CARDINAL.

1. To-day we will visit the university city of Oxford. We make our way to Carfax, and passing down St. Aldate's Street see on our left hand the famous Tom Tower of the college, known as Christ Church. Over the great gate and under Tom Tower stands a statue of Cardinal Wolsey, the great minister of Henry the Eighth. On a wall of the fine

old dining-hall, which is decorated with the portraits of great students of this famous old college, we shall see a picture of him.

2. It was Wolsey who planned this college, which was at first called Cardinal College, and made it the most magnificent home of learning then in Europe. He endowed it on a lavish scale, and in one year spent on the buildings a sum which would be equivalent to more than £100,000 of our present money. You already know that before Wolsey died he said farewell, "a long farewell," to all his greatness; but Christ Church still remains to remind us of the man who "trod all the ways of glory, and sounded all the depths and shoals of honour."

3. Wolsey was a splendid failure; he did not carry out any great reform, or lay the foundations of a movement which was to be fruitful in after days; nevertheless, he is important, because he was the first great foreign minister England ever had. He cared little for home affairs; all his thought and energy were devoted to winning for England a position of importance amongst the European states. In this he failed, for England was not at that time strong enough to play a leading part on the Continent, nor was it to her advantage that she should do so.

4. Wolsey had been trained at the court of Henry the Seventh, and, like his old master, was a man of peace, and opposed to war if he could secure his ends by any other means. His new master, however, was very ambitious, and thirsted for glory on Continental fields. Henry played so large a part in public affairs that we cannot understand the movements of the time unless we know what manner

of a man he was. The Venetian ambassador at his court has left us an admirable picture of Henry at his best.

5. Writing eleven years after the king's accession, the Venetian says: "His Majesty is twenty-nine years old, and extremely handsome. Nature could not have done more for him. He is much handsomer than any other sovereign in Christendom; a great deal handsomer than the King of France; very fair, and his whole frame admirably proportioned. He is very accomplished, a good musician, composes well, is a most capital horseman, a fine jousting, speaks good French, Latin, and Spanish, and is very religious.

6. "He is very fond of hunting, and never takes his diversion without tiring eight or ten horses, which he causes to be stationed beforehand along the line of country which he means to take, and when one is tired he mounts another, and before he gets home they are all exhausted. He is extremely fond of tennis, at which game it is the prettiest thing in the world to see him play, his fair skin glowing through a shirt of the finest texture. He is affable and gracious, harms no one, does not covet his neighbour's goods, and is satisfied with his own dominions. He is very rich, and the best-dressed sovereign in the world."

7. Such was Henry at the beginning of his reign. As the years went by he changed for the worse. He developed into a cold-hearted tyrant, who made his whim the law of the land, and ruthlessly sent to the scaffold all on whom his displeasure fell. From the first he was absolute master of his realm, and could say, like a famous French king of later times, "The State; it is I." Nevertheless, he was always careful to make his acts legal by

getting Parliament to endorse them. Like all the Tudors, he greatly valued his popularity with the people, and his ministers had to bear all the blame of his unpopular acts. He was nearly always able to make the nation believe that its interests and his interests were the same. As a consequence, he was trusted with larger powers than any previous king.

8. Henry was young, able, popular, wealthy, and ambitious, and naturally he longed to distinguish himself. He was eager to follow the example of Edward the Third and Henry the Fifth, and win great renown in Continental warfare. Now at the time of his accession Europe was in a very disturbed state. There were four great powers which divided the government of Europe between them—the Papacy, the Empire, France, and Spain.

9. In earlier times the Christian states of Europe had regarded the Pope as their spiritual overlord, and many of them regarded the Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire as their secular overlord. The Holy Roman Empire, which had formerly claimed to be the lineal successor of the Western Roman Empire, was now little more than the German Empire, and the Emperor had very little control over the princes who ruled the states composing it. The Pope, too, had lost much of his former power, and could not rely upon any European state for support. While the old order was changing and giving place to the new, France and Spain were rapidly becoming rivals for the mastery of Europe.

10. Two years after Henry came to the throne the position of affairs in Europe was as follows. The French king was Lewis the Twelfth, who was bent on conquering Italy. The Pope was Julius the Second, who was much concerned

for the safety of his territories in Italy. The King of Spain was Ferdinand, father-in-law of Henry the Eighth, who had married his daughter Catherine. The Emperor was Maximilian, who was also united by family ties with the royal house of Spain.

11. The Emperor, the King of Spain, and the Pope now formed what was called the Holy League, to prevent Lewis from carrying out his designs on Italy. Henry was eager to play a part in these great doings, and he gladly joined the League, and made an agreement with his father-in-law that a combined army should invade Guienne. In the winter of 1512 Henry prepared for war, and the work of fitting out the army fell upon the shoulders of Wolsey, who showed himself a splendid organizer and the most capable of all Henry's servants.

12. England was quite unprepared for war, and every branch of the military service had almost to be created. At length, however, the troops were sent to Guienne, but the expedition was a complete failure. The selfish and crafty Ferdinand made a cat's-paw of his son-in-law, and tried to use Henry's troops simply to further his own ends. The English soldiers, unlike their forefathers, won no renown on French fields. They drank Spanish wine as though it were beer, fell ill, mutinied, and had to be brought home.

13. The statesmen on the Continent made merry over the disaster. "The English," they said, "are so unaccustomed to war that they have no experience to guide them." Henry was furious at the disgrace, and next year Wolsey threw himself heart and soul into the task of fitting out a new **expedition**.

6. THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD.

1. On the last day of June 1513 the batteries of Calais roared out a welcome to Henry, who landed at the head of an army, which included Wolsey, in command of two hundred men. The little town of Terouenne was besieged, and the Emperor Maximilian, "the foremost knight of his time," joined the besiegers, to serve under Henry's banner as a volunteer. The French were now in a state of panic, and the Scottish king, James of the Iron Belt, prepared to invade England on behalf of his ally.

2. The autumn saw the defeat of the French outside Terouenne in an engagement which consisted merely of a charge and a rapid retreat by the French cavalry. Because of this the affair was called the Battle of Spurs. Tournay also fell, and news arrived from England that Flodden had been fought, and that Scotland's power was broken for many a year to come.

3. Henry soon found that his allies were far too cunning and clever for him. They had been using his troops and his money simply for their own advantage, and now they deserted him altogether. The might of France was gone; she was no longer a danger to the Papacy; and Ferdinand, who now considered that Spanish interests were safe, tried to make a secret treaty with France, and endeavoured to include Maximilian in it.

4. Henry thus found himself tricked by his father-in-law and the Emperor. Wolsey thereupon resolved to hoist them with their own petard. He determined to make France a firm ally of England, so that henceforth Henry

would be independent of both the Spanish king and the Emperor. He sent an embassy to Lewis, who agreed to make a treaty with England, pay the English king 100,000 crowns, and marry his pretty sister Mary. All was quietly arranged, and Europe knew nothing of the alliance until it was completed.

5. When the treaty was announced, Ferdinand, Maximilian, and the Pope were greatly surprised and alarmed. They had been taught the well-deserved lesson that they could no longer play fast and loose with England. Their respect for Henry and his great minister at once went up by leaps and bounds.

6. Wolsey was now at the very height of his power and magnificence. Henry showered gifts upon him until he was rich beyond the dreams of avarice. Foreign kings sought his friendship, and gave him pensions. He loved pomp and ceremony, and his train was composed of five hundred persons of noble birth. In the year 1515 Pope Leo the Tenth made him a cardinal or prince of the Church, and three years later papal legate in England. Now that he was supreme over the Church in England, Wolsey began to covet the Papacy itself. The Venetian ambassador said of him about this time, "He is seven times more powerful than the Pope."

7. A great change now took place in European affairs. Lewis, who was thirty-five years older than his young new wife, died in 1515, within six months of his marriage. In the following year Ferdinand also passed away. The successors of the French and Spanish kings were young men as eager and ambitious as Henry himself. They had been

rivals from their youth up, and when they became kings their rivalry was the main source of trouble in Europe for the next thirty years.

8. England had now to select her ally. She might choose Francis the First of France, or Charles the Fifth, who was not only King of Spain, but Duke of Burgundy and Archduke of Austria, as well as the probable successor of his grandfather Maximilian. The choice was a difficult one. An alliance with France, "the ancient enemy," was not popular in England, and Henry was jealous of the French king's grace of person and prowess in sports; while an alliance with Charles would make that most powerful prince still more powerful, and thus a great danger to the whole of Europe.

9. In this difficulty Wolsey thought that England would gain the greatest advantage by standing between the two parties, helping now the one and now the other, and always taking care that neither side became too strong. This was the policy which Wolsey pursued for the next ten years. As a result, England was courted by both parties, and Wolsey was the object of all sorts of flatteries and attentions. Both sides offered to help him to the Papacy, and both sides left him in the lurch.

10. In 1519 Maximilian died, and the seven chief princes of Germany were called upon to elect another Emperor. The most likely candidate was Charles. His rival, Francis the First, also put in a claim, and the two kings turned to Henry and the Pope for assistance. Wolsey secretly promised help to both of them, but the Pope could not make up his mind to help either of them. At last, to Wolsey's

dismay, Henry himself came forward as a candidate, though he had no chance of election. The French and Spanish kings lavished huge bribes upon the German princes, and at last the Pope came round to the side of Charles. The princes voted for the highest bidder, and Charles was elected Emperor in June 1519.

11. In order to carry out Wolsey's policy, England had to be friendly with both sides. This was becoming difficult, for Francis and Charles were not far from an open quarrel. Francis was bent on gaining Northern Italy for France, and he was eager for the assistance of the English king. Naturally he strove to win the good offices of Wolsey, and this he did by promising to help him to become Pope when Leo died.

12. Wolsey now seemed to be on the side of Francis, and he pushed forward the arrangements for a meeting between the French and English kings. Before, however, the meeting could take place, the wily chancellor suggested to Charles that he too should have an interview with Henry. This also was arranged, and less than a month before the meeting with Francis, Charles visited England. In return for this service Charles promised to help Wolsey to gain the Papacy, a promise which he also made on a later occasion. No sooner had Charles departed than Henry embarked for Calais.

13. Wolsey had arranged that Henry and Francis should meet as near to English soil as possible, and that the English king should lodge within his own territory of Calais. The spot appointed for the meeting was in the meadows between Guisnes and Ardres, on the border-land of



The Embarkation of Henry the Eighth at Dover.

(From the picture said to be by Hans Holbein in Hampton Court Palace.)

Hans Holbein (1497-1543), the reputed painter of this picture, was a German, and the greatest artist of his time. He went to London (1526) with a letter from Erasmus, introducing him to Sir Thomas More. In England he found ample employment as a portrait painter. For Henry the Eighth he painted several pictures. He was in England six years after the scene portrayed above took place; we may, therefore, assume that it is a truthful representation of the ships, armaments, and soldiers of the time.

the two kingdoms. Stately palaces of wood decked the flat meadows, tents of cloth of gold and the richest embroidery were reared, and every possible device was adopted to lend splendour to the scene. The English and French nobles and knights vied with each other in the richness of their apparel. They blazed in cloth of gold and silver, in velvets, and crimson satins, with gold chains and baldrics of such value that many a noble and knight wore a year's income on his back.

14. For a fortnight the plain at Ardres—"The Field of the Cloth of Gold," as it was afterwards called—was the scene of tiltings, pageants, banquets, and lavish display. Henry and Francis met, and embraced and swore friendship; but within a month Henry and Charles had concluded a secret treaty, and the Emperor had promised to marry Henry's daughter, Mary Tudor, when she was twelve years old.

15. Francis and Charles were now on the point of war, but Wolsey begged them to submit their differences to Henry, and let him decide between them. They did so, but the conference, which met at Calais, with Wolsey as president, was a complete failure. Charles was determined on war, and Henry, dazzled by the prospect of winning back the old English possessions in France, was ready to join him.

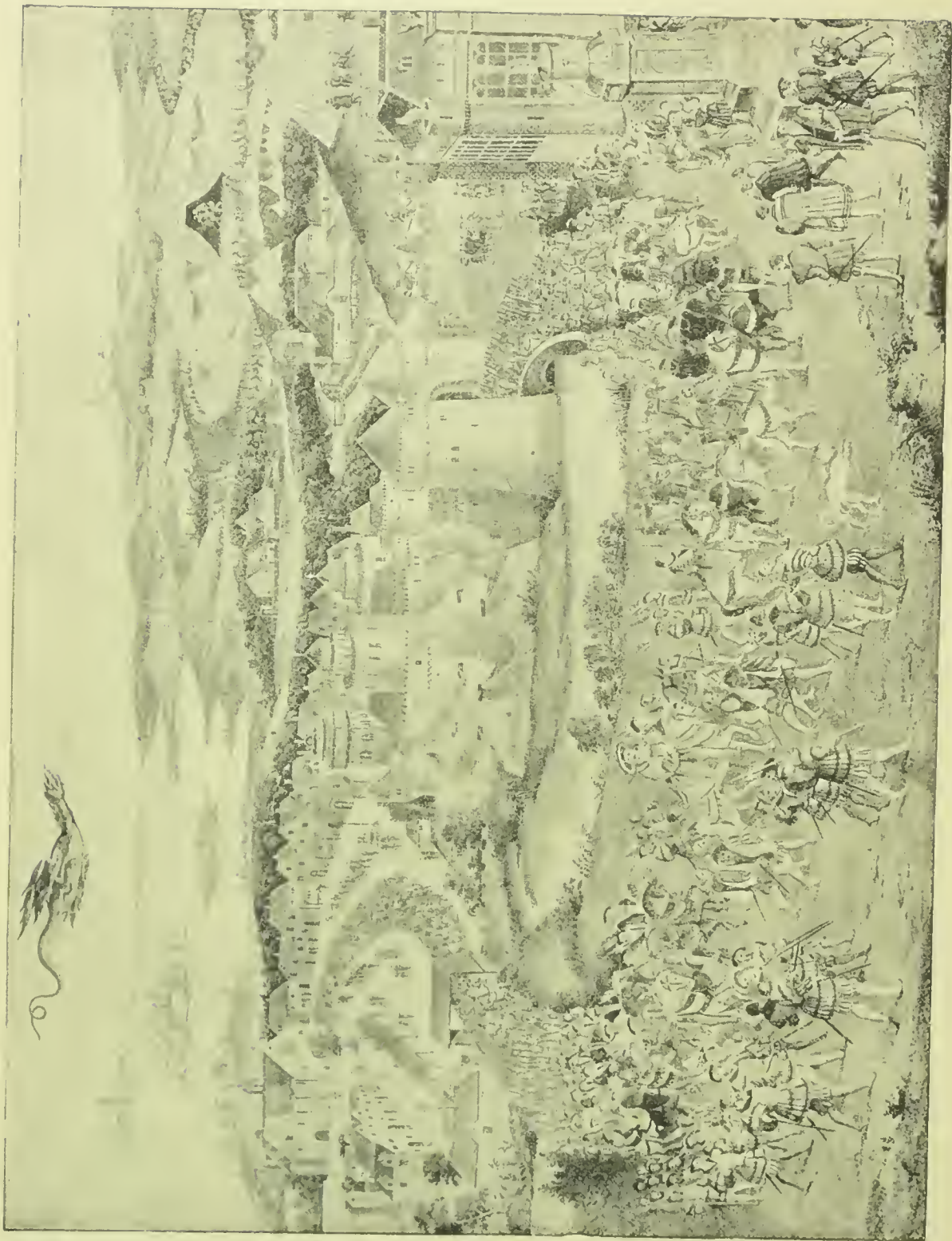
16. Queen Catherine was delighted that Henry had allied himself with her native country of Spain, and the English nobles were overjoyed at the prospect of winning renown and ransoms in France. Henry raised forty thousand men, and in the autumn of 1522 a brief and inglorious campaign took place. In 1523 Francis offended the chief noble of France—the Constable of Bourbon—who now turned

against his king, and proposed to help Henry to win the crown of France. A plan of campaign was at once made; but Henry's large fortune had vanished, and he was obliged to call a Parliament to grant him supplies.

17. Wolsey himself went down to the House of Commons and demanded a grant of £800,000. He was received in silence, and he called upon member after member, and finally upon Sir Thomas More, the Speaker, to reply. More fell upon his knees, and said he had no power to make any answer until he had received instructions from the House itself. Wolsey had to go empty away, and as soon as his back was turned an angry debate began. For a fortnight Parliament disputed the question, and in the end only granted half of Wolsey's demand.

18. An attempt was now made to get the money by means of benevolences, but there was a strong resistance all over the country. The men of Kent rose in arms, and Henry was forced to give way. He could not take part in the war without money, so he had to look on while the rival kings continued their struggles. In 1525 Francis suffered a terrible defeat at Pavia, and was captured by Charles.

19. Henry naturally expected that his ally would give him a share of the spoils, but the Emperor soon showed that he did not mean to fulfil any of the promises which he had made to lure Henry into the war. England had gained nothing, and Charles did not mean that she should. For these and other reasons Henry and Wolsey decided to break the alliance with the Emperor and go back to their old policy of supporting the weaker side. A secret treaty was



THE FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD.
(From the picture by Hans Holbein in Hampton Court Palace.)

made with the French Government. Henry received 2,000 crowns in return for his alliance, and Charles found himself unable to get much advantage from his great victory.

20. Francis was released soon after, but Henry took no part in the fresh war which broke out when the French king refused to fulfil the promises which he had made in order to win his release. The fact was that Henry was no longer interested in foreign affairs. He had fallen in love with the fairest and gayest lady of his court, and had embarked upon that course which led to his great quarrel with the Pope.

7. THE NEW WORSHIP.

1. Here is a penny. Look at the side with the King's head on it, and read the words which are stamped round it: GEORGIUS V DEI GRA: BRITT: OMN: REX FID: DEF: IND: IMP.: that is,

George V., by the Grace of God, King of all the Britains, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India.

Now the part of our King's title which I wish you to notice is FID: DEF: "Defender of the Faith." The king who first won this title was Henry the Eighth. How came *he* to be called "Defender of the Faith"?

2. Up to about the year 1520 there was only one great Christian Church in the west of Europe. The head of it was the Pope, or Bishop of Rome. As I told you in Book IV., the Church in the course of time had fallen away from its old, simple, pious ways, and many earnest men in the Church itself were anxious to see certain things which

they considered abuses swept away. As far back as the reign of Edward the Third an Oxford scholar named Wycliffe had advocated certain changes. You will remember that he was the first English Church reformer, and has been called "the morning star of the Reformation."

3. His greatest work was the translation of the Scriptures from the Latin into English. The circulation of Wycliffe's Bible and the preaching of his poor priests led to a large increase in the number of persons eager to see the Church reformed. These persons were known as the Lollards. In Book IV. I told you how their harsh treatment by Henry the Fifth prevented the movement from extending, but did not entirely stamp it out.

4. The Pope had often been criticized in England, and his control in Church matters was always a source of trouble. This dislike had been strongly felt in the reigns of Henry the Second, John, Henry the Third, and Edward the First, and in the fourteenth century the feeling grew so strong that several Acts of Parliament were passed to limit the Pope's power. The people were not only opposed to the Pope, but were dissatisfied with the great churchmen, such as Wolsey, who seemed to think far more of their worldly possessions than of the welfare of religion.

5. Neglect of their duties and greed for money were to be found amongst the clergy of the day, and the Church had more than once used its great wealth and influence to prevent reforms which the nation strongly desired. No little dislike, too, was felt for the powers of self-government which the Church possessed. The clergy voted their own taxes for the use of the State, and they were not allowed to

be punished for offences against the law by the ordinary courts of the land.

6. Then, too, the revival of learning had brought about a great change. For the first time there were many educated laymen in the land, and they were in a position to compare the teaching of the Church with its practice. They saw clearly that if the Church was to be maintained, the abuses which gave offence to many of its friends would have to be removed. Such men as Dean Colet, who, you will remember, refused to honour the relics of St. Thomas, were eager to purify the Church from within. Even Wolsey had planned a scheme of reforms to be put into force when occasion should permit.

7. The great centre of the reform movement, however, was in Germany, where the preaching of Martin Luther was creating a great stir. Luther was born in Saxony in the year 1483, and at the age of twenty-one he became a friar. In the year 1517 he was roused to the utmost indignation by the visit of a friar, named John Tetzel, who came to Wittenberg, where Luther was then living, and sold indulgences to the townsfolk for hard cash. Pope Leo the Tenth was then building his great church of St. Peter's at Rome, and in order to raise money he permitted the sale of these indulgences—that is, promises of freedom from those penances by which repentant persons were supposed to win forgiveness of their sins.

8. Tetzel, who was hawking these indulgences, persuaded the people to buy his wares by assuring them that as soon as their money clinked at the bottom of his chest, the souls of their dead friends would forthwith fly up to heaven.

This so roused Luther that he wrote a long statement against indulgences, and nailed it to the church door. Copies of this statement were sold and read everywhere. Soon Luther grew bolder and more outspoken, and attacked several of the chief doctrines of the Church. In 1520 the Pope issued a bull—that is, a paper with a *bull* or seal attached to it—condemning the teaching of Luther. Thereupon Luther called his friends together and publicly burnt the Pope's bull in the market-place.

9. Meanwhile the teachings of Luther and his friends were spreading rapidly, not only in Germany, Switzerland, and France, but also in England and Scotland. The Pope was alarmed, and he persuaded the Emperor Charles the Fifth to bring Luther to trial at a great meeting of nobles and bishops. Luther defended himself with great ability, but the Emperor was ready to condemn him, and would have done so but for the many powerful friends who came to the Reformer's aid and sheltered him from violence. In 1529 another meeting was held, at which the princes who supported Luther *protested* against what they thought to be the wrongful acts and mistakes of the Church. Because of this they were called Protestants.

10. Now let us return to King Henry and his title. In 1521 Henry, who was a good scholar, and proud of his learning, wrote a book in answer to one of Luther's. The royal author, to the best of his ability, upheld the teachings of the Church and the authority of the Pope. Luther replied in scathing terms, calling Henry "this royal driveller of lies and poison," "this conscience-haunted tyrant," and so forth. "He trembles in his skin," said



TRIAL OF QUEEN CATHERINE.

(From the picture by Henry O'Neil, A.R.A. By permission of the Art Gallery Committee of the Corporation of Birmingham.)

Luther, "lest the blood he has shed be demanded at his hands; and this it is which makes him clutch hold of the Pope to keep him on his throne, and pay court, now to the Emperor, now to the King of France." Nevertheless, Henry's book pleased the Pope so much that he gave the English king the title which all his successors have borne—Defender of the Faith. Little did the Pope think that Henry was soon to be one of his bitterest foes.

11. At first the great mass of the English people did not trouble themselves much about Luther and his protests. They were, however, drawn into the great Reformation movement by the quarrel of their king with the Pope. Let us see how this came about. During the later years of Henry the Seventh's reign, Arthur, the heir to the throne, had been married to Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Arthur died young, and Catherine was betrothed and afterwards married to his brother Henry.

12. Catherine was a gentle, pious woman, but she was not beautiful, and her health was feeble. All her children except one—the Princess Mary—had died, and Henry was eager to have a son to succeed him, for he was the only living male of the house of Tudor. After eighteen years of married life, Henry fell in love with Anne Boleyn, one of the queen's maids of honour. Before long he asked the Pope to declare that his marriage with Catherine had never been a real marriage, because she had previously been the wife of his brother Arthur.

13. Wolsey, ready as ever to serve his master, now requested the Pope to do as Henry wished. The Pope was then in a most unhappy condition. In the last lesson I told

you that Charles the Fifth, the nephew of Queen Catherine, captured Francis at the battle of Pavia. After the release of Francis an army, led by one of the allies of Charles, sacked Rome, and seized the Pope himself, who was now in the power of the Emperor. Charles was determined that his aunt Catherine should not be divorced, and the Pope dared not offend him. At the same time the Pope, as an ally of Henry, was naturally anxious to favour him.

14. In his difficulty, the Pope sought to gain time, and therefore appointed Wolsey and an Italian cardinal named Campeggio to inquire into the case. In June 1529 the two cardinals opened their court in the great hall of the Black Friars' Monastery in London. Catherine refused to answer when her name was called, but knelt at the feet of her husband and pleaded with him to spare her the disgrace of a divorce. Then rising, she bowed to the king and refused to face the court again. The trial dragged on, and Henry became impatient and demanded speedy judgment.

15. Meanwhile the Pope had made a treaty with the Emperor, and he could now defy Henry. He therefore ordered the cause to be transferred to Rome for trial. Henry and Anne Boleyn were furious. They said that Wolsey had bungled the matter, and forthwith his doom was sealed. He was dismissed from his office as chancellor, and was charged with breaking an old law which forbade any one to ask the Pope to decide in a matter of dispute within the realm of England. Wolsey had only appealed to the Pope at the king's request. The king, however, untruthfully declared that Wolsey had acted without his knowledge and consent.

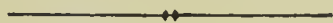


WOLSEY AT LEICESTER ABBEY.
(From the picture by R. Westall, R.A.)

16. Thereupon Wolsey was found guilty. Much of his property was taken from him, and he was banished to his cathedral town of York. Shortly afterwards fresh charges were brought against him, and he was ordered to London. Sick and weary he reached Leicester, and when the abbot and the monks advanced to receive him he said truly, “Father, I am come to lay my bones among you.” He died a few days later, lamenting with his failing breath,—

“Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, He would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies.”

So died the first of England’s foreign ministers, the victim of a sovereign who remorselessly flung away his servants as soon as they ceased to be useful to him.



8. “THE HAMMER OF THE MONKS.”

1. In Book IV. we paid a visit to Tintern Abbey, that noble ruin which stands, remote from towns, in the romantic valley of the river Wye. There is scarcely a county in England or Wales which does not boast a ruined abbey amongst its picturesque features. Some of these old monastic buildings are now represented by a few crumbling walls and broken arches; others are in a better state of repair, and are carefully preserved as interesting memorials of the past.

2. A happier fate has befallen some of the best of them, for they have become cathedrals or parish churches.

If you visit one of the many ruined abbeys in Great Britain, and gaze on its roofless aisles and mouldering columns, you will be sure to ask—if you do not know already—how it came to pass that these glorious old buildings were abandoned to solitude and decay.

3. Now in order to answer this question we must proceed with the story of Henry's quarrel with the Pope. In 1529, the year of Wolsey's fall, the Great Parliament which "broke the bonds of Rome" began its seven years of existence. Sir Thomas More succeeded Wolsey as Lord Chancellor, and Anne Boleyn's uncle and father filled high offices in the state. In matters of religion Henry now began to follow the advice of Thomas Cranmer, a Cambridge Fellow, who had expressed the opinion at a supper-table that the king's marriage was void because it was contrary to the law of God, and that the English Church Courts could grant a divorce without reference to Rome at all.

4. Cranmer also suggested that the universities of Christendom should be asked to say "whether or no a man may marry his brother's wife." Cranmer's suggestion was acted upon, and the opinion of the universities was on the whole favourable. Meanwhile his promotion in the Church was very rapid. Within a little more than three years after his casual remark at the supper-table he was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He was a capable man, gentle and kindly, but his will was weak and his moral courage was feeble.

5. The Pope gave no sign of yielding in the matter of the divorce, so Henry began to put pressure upon him. He called the clergy together in the year 1531, and informed

them that they had broken the law in obeying Wolsey as the Pope's legate, and that they must be punished. Of course this was a terrible piece of injustice, for the clergy had merely obeyed the king in accepting Wolsey as papal legate.

6. The fact was that Henry meant to show the clergy that he was their master, and he also wished to wring from them a very important declaration. He therefore offered them pardon if they would recognize him as the Supreme Head of the Church of England, and pay him the sum of £118,000. The clergy were forced to accept these terms, which they did “as far as the law of Christ allows,” and then they received pardon for a crime of which they were innocent.

7. The House of Commons was eager to please the king, and in the next year it passed a Bill suspending the payment of the fees given to the Pope by the clergy when appointed to their parishes. But even this threatened loss of income did not produce the much-desired divorce, so in 1533 Parliament passed an Act forbidding all appeals to Rome. Cranmer, as archbishop, was thus called upon to try the question of the divorce in his court.

8. The matter was soon settled. The king's marriage was declared to be contrary to the law of God, and therefore of no effect. Henry had already married Anne Boleyn, and the court declared his new marriage lawful. Anne's coronation took place shortly afterwards, but not a cheer was raised for her in the London streets. She and her family were hated by the great mass of the nation.

9. In the same year we find Thomas Cromwell becoming very powerful in Henry's councils. He was then a man of forty-eight years of age, who had been “many things by

turns and nothing long." As soldier, clerk, lawyer, merchant, and steward of Wolsey's household he had gained a very wide experience of men and things. Shakespeare, in his *Henry the Eighth*, gives Cromwell a far better character than he deserves. He is painted as very faithful to the fallen cardinal, and is represented as taking service with the king at the earnest wish of his master. As a matter of fact, Cromwell was a crafty self-seeker, who used his fidelity to Wolsey as a means of promoting his own interests and securing the favour of powerful friends. He won the king's ear by the suggestion that Henry should cut himself off from Rome altogether, and declare himself head of the English Church.

10. In the year 1534 the English Church was finally severed from that of Rome by the famous Act of Supremacy. The power of the Pope in this realm was done away with altogether, and the king took his place, with even larger powers than the Pope had ever possessed. At the same time another Act was passed, declaring every one who denied the king the title of "on earth Supreme Head of the Church of England" to be a traitor.

11. Then began a reign of terror, carried out with blood-thirsty zeal by Cromwell, whose spies were everywhere. Hundreds of innocent persons were sent to the scaffold, amongst them the monks of the Charterhouse; the saintly Thomas More, Henry's bosom friend of former years; Fisher, Bishop of Rochester, and others of less note. On the Continent these judicial murders were regarded with the utmost horror, and the Pope declared Henry to be excommunicated.

12. Parliament replied to the Pope by passing an Act for doing away with the smaller monasteries. A hasty report had already claimed that nothing but idleness and wickedness were to be found in them. When the reports were read in Parliament, the Commons shouted, "Down with them," and Henry was asked to suppress all religious houses with an annual income of less than £200—that is, about £2,500 of modern money. We know now that things were not so black as they were painted, and that the king really wished for an excuse for taking possession of the property of the monasteries. Henry the Fifth and Henry the Seventh had dissolved some of them, and Wolsey, with the Pope's sanction, had shut up a large number of small priories and convents in order to provide money for his colleges at Oxford and Ipswich.

9. THE END OF THE MONASTERIES.

1. In 1536 the smaller monasteries were shut up, and their goods and revenues were seized by the king. Some of the older monks and nuns received gifts of money, but great hardship was caused not only to those who were forced out into the world to make a living—for which they were quite unfitted—but also to the large number of people who were dependent on the monasteries for employment and assistance in poverty and sickness. It is estimated that in all some eighty thousand persons, or one in every fifty of the population, gained a livelihood in connection with the monastic houses. The full extent of the suffering thus caused was

seen twenty years later, when the number of beggars had increased a hundredfold.

2. It is not surprising, therefore, that the shutting up of the smaller monasteries was followed by a great rising in the north, which was then, and for many years to come, the part of the kingdom least moved by new ideas. The most serious revolt took place in Yorkshire, and was known



THOMAS CROMWELL.

as the "Pilgrimage of Grace." In the ranks of the rebels were found not only those who suffered from the suppression of the monasteries, but many who found the landlords to whom the monastic lands were given harsh and greedy masters. Abbot, noble, county gentleman, and peasant made common cause, and before long an army of thirty thousand

"as tall men and well horsed and appointed as any men could be" was gathered together, under the leadership of a wise young lawyer named Robert Aske.

3. When the news reached London there was dismay at the Court. The royal army was moved to the north; but it was outnumbered, and its leader, the Duke of Norfolk, was forced to offer terms to the rebels. Envoys were sent to the king, asking for the undoing of all that had been done and the punishment of Cromwell and Cranmer.

Henry met them with fair but deceitful words. He promised a general pardon, a northern Parliament to be held at York, and the redress of various grievances. Trusting in the good faith of the king, the rebels dispersed. Then Cromwell struck hard at the northern nobility; the highest among them were hanged or beheaded, and the victims included the heads of some of the great Yorkshire monasteries.

4. The next step was to sweep away the greater monasteries. Between 1538 and 1540 all these institutions were shut up, the monks were sent adrift, some of them with small pensions, and their lands and properties were seized by the king, who received in this way a sum equal to between fourteen and fifteen millions at the present day. This plunder, however, was of little advantage to the king. He had promised to found many new churches, bishoprics, and schools. Most of the money, however, was lavished on bribes to the nobles and gentry. Six new bishoprics were founded, and a number of grammar schools were promised, but nothing of much importance was done.

5. Now that you understand why we have so many ruined abbeys in England, let us proceed with the story of the English Reformation. Year by year the Protestants were growing stronger in numbers and in power. The Bible was translated into English by royal order in 1538, and a chained copy was placed in every parish church. As more of the people were then able to read the Bible Protestantism advanced greatly. Though Cranmer and Cromwell both favoured the Reformers, Henry refused point-blank to make large changes in the doctrines of the Church. He persuaded Parliament to pass a cruel Act inflict-



Some of the most picturesque of the Ruined Abbeys of Britain.

1. Bolton. 2. Kirkstall. 3. Bristol. 4. Holyrood. 5. Fountains.

ing death on all who, after due warning, should speak or write against certain doctrines of the Catholic Church.

6. Meantime Cromwell had been growing steadily in power, and had been adding office to office. Nevertheless, his knell had rung, and the day was rapidly approaching when his fall would be even more sudden and complete than Wolsey's had been. The king had never respected his tool. It is said that Henry called him knave once or twice a week, and sometimes knocked him on the head. A royal marriage had led to Wolsey's downfall; strange to say, Cromwell's ruin was brought about in the same way.

7. Anne Boleyn, accused of foul crimes, had been sent to the block in 1536, and Jane Seymour, her successor as queen, had died in the following year. Henry was once more a widower, and Cromwell, thinking to strengthen the Protestant cause in England, persuaded his fickle master to marry Anne, sister of the Protestant Duke of Cleves. Unhappily, Cromwell made the serious blunder of providing the king with a plain wife. This was the beginning of the end.

8. The royal anger knew no bounds, and the king suddenly cooled towards his minister. Cromwell's enemies at once took advantage of his disgrace. At a council meeting the Duke of Norfolk accused him of treason, and tore the Order of the Garter from his neck. He was charged with attempting to override the king's power, condemned by Parliament without a trial, refused leave to speak in his own defence, and abandoned by the monarch whom he had zealously served. In July 1540 he met his death on the scaffold, "unwept, unhonoured, and unsung."

10. THE FATHER OF THE BRITISH NAVY.

1. Look carefully at the picture on page 37. It is said to have been painted by Hans Holbein, a German artist, who was sent by Cromwell to Cleves to paint a flattering portrait of the young princess whom Henry married at his minister's instigation and promptly divorced by Act of Parliament. The picture shows you the embarkation of Henry at Dover on the occasion when he sailed across the strait to meet Francis the First on the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

2. Notice the great ship leaving the harbour with her sails set. This is probably the celebrated *Henri Grace à Dieu*, or *Great Harry*, the most perfect warship of the time. What the *Dreadnought* is to the navy of to-day, the *Great Harry* was to Henry's fleet. You may see a model of this ship at Greenwich Hospital, and a list of her fittings is still preserved in Magdalene College, Cambridge.

3. You will notice from the picture that the ship is really a floating castle, the "stern castle" corresponding with the keep. Both her fore and stern castles have battlements, and each of them ends in a turret. She carries four masts, and has two round "tops" for archers on each mast except the sternmost. Her sides and tops are fortified and decorated with shields. On each side of the rudder, which seems to our modern eyes very small, is a port-hole with a brass cannon; on the side of the main deck are two other port-holes similarly furnished; and there is provision for the same number of guns under the forecastle. In all, the *Great Harry* carried twenty-one brass cannon and a large number of smaller iron guns, to-

gether with one hundred hand-guns. Her ship's company consisted of three hundred and forty-nine soldiers, three hundred and one mariners, and fifty gunners, or seven hundred in all.

4. Now this ship introduces us to Henry as "the father of the British Navy." He was the first of our kings who organized the Royal Navy as a standing force, and founded that separate Government department which we now call the Admiralty. He clearly perceived what we all recognize to-day—namely, that Providence has designed us to enlarge our power by way of the sea.

5. Our Empire has been founded on the seas, is maintained on the seas, and can only last as long as we command the seas. Whatever we may think of Henry as a man and a king, we are bound to say that he served England well when he turned his attention to the navy. As early as 1512 he had a fleet of fifteen sail; thirty-five years later he had seventy ships, thirty of which were of the first class.

6. Henry had a genuine love for the sea. He was a first-rate pilot, and he delighted in steering his own yacht. He encouraged the planting of forests to provide oak for ship-building, and the cultivation of hemp and flax for the manufacture of cables; he spent vast sums of money on the deepening of the channels in the estuaries of our large rivers; he did away with tolls on the Severn, so that water communication might be as free as possible; he gave large grants to various ports for the building of piers; he founded the royal dockyards of Woolwich and Deptford, and established Trinity House, which still controls the

pilotage of the Thames, and is the general lighthouse authority for England and Wales. He was active, too, in the work of coast defence, and built large numbers of castles along the shores of the southern shires.

7. Having built good ships, and appointed a State department to supervise them, Henry did not lack great naval commanders. The Lord High Admiral was made the second person in the kingdom, and ambitious men naturally strove hard for the coveted post. A famous Lord High Admiral was Sir Edward Howard, who in 1513 gallantly but unsuccessfully strove to capture a number of French galleys by boarding them.

8. His brother, Sir Thomas Howard, succeeded him in his high office, and did much to make the fleet efficient. His first exploit was to defeat and slay a famous Scot named Sir Andrew Barton, who preyed on the English shipping in the Channel. Afterwards Sir Thomas was made commander-in-chief of the allied fleets of Henry and the Empire, an appointment which shows us that England had become an important power on the seas.

9. Henry's admirals soon began to practise tactics in their naval engagements. Formerly there had been no attempt to gain advantages by means of seamanship. The ships came as quickly as possible to close quarters, and then, by means of bows and arrows, axes, pikes, lime-pots, stink-pots, and hand-to-hand fighting, the issue was decided. Now we begin to hear of attempts to secure the "weather-gauge"—that is, to get to the windward of another ship, and therefore to be in a position of great advantage for changing position. Gunnery also became important.

Henry himself invented the mortar, or short bombard, and shells filled with explosives. In 1520 he opened the first gun foundry in England.

10. Nor did Henry neglect the merchant navy. He was always ready to use his ambassadors and agents to push commerce abroad. Before his death, English merchant adventurers had established an important trade with the Levant, and were exchanging such woollen goods as kerseys for the silks, wines, sweet oils, cottons, Turkey carpets, and spices of Sicily, Candia, Cyprus, Tripoli, and Beirut.

11. As you already know, adventurous sailors were then dreaming of direct sea-routes to the Spice Islands by coasting along the northern shores of America and Asia. We now know that they were on a wrong tack, for the North-East Passage and the North-West Passage, which they vainly sought, lead through frozen oceans impossible of navigation by ordinary trading ships. Members of the famous Devon family of Hawkins, however, steered in a more fruitful direction, and discovered on the shores of the Gulf of Guinea that rich land which is known as the Gold Coast.

12. Strange as it may seem, Henry's breach with Rome had some effect in encouraging our sailors to make voyages of adventure and exploration. After Columbus had announced his wonderful discovery of a new world, Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain besought the Pope to declare that the new continent belonged wholly and solely to them and to their heirs. But Portugal also laid claim to parts of these newly-discovered lands.

13. After some disputing with the Portuguese, the Pope

decreed that all lands, discovered and undiscovered, lying west and south of an imaginary line drawn from the North to the South Pole at a distance of one hundred leagues west of the Azores and the Cape Verde Islands, should belong to Spain, and the rest to Portugal. The Pope really divided the world of undiscovered lands between these two powers.

14. So long as the Pope was the head of the undivided Church, his award was respected ; but when Henry declared that the Bishop of Rome had no power or authority in this realm of England, the Pope's claim to make such an award was laughed at by Englishmen. They no longer felt themselves bound by his decision, and they refused to be shut out of the seas which he had closed to them. Their raids on Spanish ships and Spanish settlements became more and more frequent, and at length, in the reign of Elizabeth, Philip of Spain was forced to launch his Invincible Armada against this country in the hope of putting an end to them.

15. Henry's reign was a time of national apprenticeship to the sea ; Englishmen were learning their great national trade. They were gaining knowledge of ships and navigation ; they were winning confidence in themselves, and were preparing for that career of world-wide expansion which was to be theirs in after years. Henry's reign was certainly a time of terror and crime ; but looking back across the ages, we see that he did much to build up the nation and fit it for the great destiny to which it has been called.



KING EDWARD THE SIXTH'S GRAMMAR SCHOOL, BIRMINGHAM.

II. A BOY KING.

1. Come with me to the great midland city of Birmingham. I dare say you know that it is the centre of the British hardware industries. Birmingham prides itself on being able to produce any metal article from a pin to a "Long Tom." As you walk through the streets, you imagine that Birmingham is a very modern city. Nevertheless, it dates back to early times. Some people say that its name is derived from the *ham* or home of the sons of a Saxon chieftain named Bern. Icknield Street, one of the famous Roman roads, runs through the suburbs, and Birmingham itself is mentioned in Domesday Book.

2. As far back as the days of Henry the Eighth Birmingham was an important place, and was already noted for its hardware. John Leland, one of the most famous of England's antiquaries, spent six years in travelling to and fro in the service of Henry, and he has left us an excellent account of the state of the country in his day. He tells us that Birmingham is a "good market towne," with one "paroch church." He adds that "there be many smithes in the towne that used to make knives and all mannour of cuttinge tooles, and many lorimers" (makers of metal-work for harness), and a "great many naylors."

3. Birmingham has many fine buildings, and to one of them I wish to direct your special attention. It stands in New Street, and is known as King Edward the Sixth's Grammar School. Probably the name is familiar to you, for very likely there is a similar school with a similar name in your own town. In the reign of King Edward the Sixth several schools of this kind were established, many of them on older foundations.

4. The money with which they were founded was derived from part of the revenues of certain small religious foundations which were suppressed in the reigns of Henry the Eighth and Edward the Sixth. The Birmingham school, for example, received the estates of the Gild of Holy Cross, which owned lands in what is now the centre of the city. In Edward's time these estates produced £21 a year; now they are worth £30,000 annually. This sum supports not only King Edward the Sixth's Grammar School, but also a group of other schools.

5. The schools which bear Edward's name form a noble

monument to his memory. Let us learn something of their royal founder and the doings of his reign. Henry the Eighth left three children—one boy and two girls. The boy was Edward, son of Jane Seymour; the girls were Mary and Elizabeth, the daughters respectively of Catherine of Aragon and Anne Boleyn. Parliament, which Henry turned into his obedient tool, allowed the king to make a will indicating the order in which his children were to come to the throne. Edward was to reign first, and if he died without heirs Mary was to succeed. If she had no children, Elizabeth was to follow her on the throne; and if Elizabeth in turn died without heirs, the crown was to go to the issue of his favourite sister Mary, Duchess of Suffolk, and not, as it actually did, to the descendants of his elder sister, Margaret, who had married King James the Fourth of Scotland.

6. Edward was in his tenth year when his father died. He was a bright and promising lad, but consumptive, and he was doomed to an early death. Nevertheless, he lived long enough to display a keen interest in religion and politics, and to prove himself possessed of his father's temper. During his short life he kept a diary, which is now preserved in the British Museum. In the pages of this book he shows himself thoughtful far beyond his years, and perhaps a little cold-blooded too. He was brought up in the Reformed faith, was fond of study, and was most carefully educated.

7. By this time I am sure that you have learnt that a boy-king or a girl-queen is a great misfortune to a country. Some person or group of persons has to take the place of

the king and rule in his name. Such a state of things is bound to lead to all sorts of plotting and self-seeking on the part of ambitious men, and the good of the nation is likely to become a mere pawn in their selfish game. Edward's brief reign was no exception to the general rule.

8. Henry had arranged that during his son's minority a council of sixteen members should rule the country, the president being Edward Seymour, brother of Queen Jane and uncle of the young king. Seymour was a very ambitious man, and before long, by bribing his fellow-members of the council with estates and gifts of money, he got himself made Duke of Somerset and Protector of the realm. Until his fall in 1549, Somerset was the real king of England.

9. In 1548 Somerset issued the "First Book of Common Prayer," the forerunner of the Church of England Prayer Book at present in use. The services of the old Church were in the Latin tongue, but Henry the Eighth had ordered that the Litany and other parts of the Church service should be said in English. Now Somerset abolished the use of Latin altogether, and ordered that every part of the service should be said "in the vulgar tongue, understood of the people at large." Many old forms and ceremonies, however, were retained, and the book proved satisfactory to the great bulk of the nation. Cranmer took the leading part in its preparation, and many of the most beautiful prayers in the Prayer Book are from his pen.

10. Meanwhile, government officials were going to and fro removing images, pictures, stained glass, and other ornaments and furniture from the churches. This was done so ruthlessly and with such irreverence that numbers of

people, who otherwise were favourable to the "new worship," were shocked into opposition. When they saw Somerset's friends loading themselves with the spoils of the churches, decking their tables with altar-cloths, and drinking out of chalices, they turned away from the "new worship" with loathing.

12. THE END OF A BRIEF REIGN.

1. While the land was thus disturbed, Somerset plunged the country into foreign war. He was anxious that Edward should be King of Great Britain, and he therefore tried to force the Scots to carry out a marriage treaty which they had made towards the end of Henry's reign. By this treaty Edward was to be married to the infant Queen of Scots, and thus the union of the two kingdoms was to be brought about.

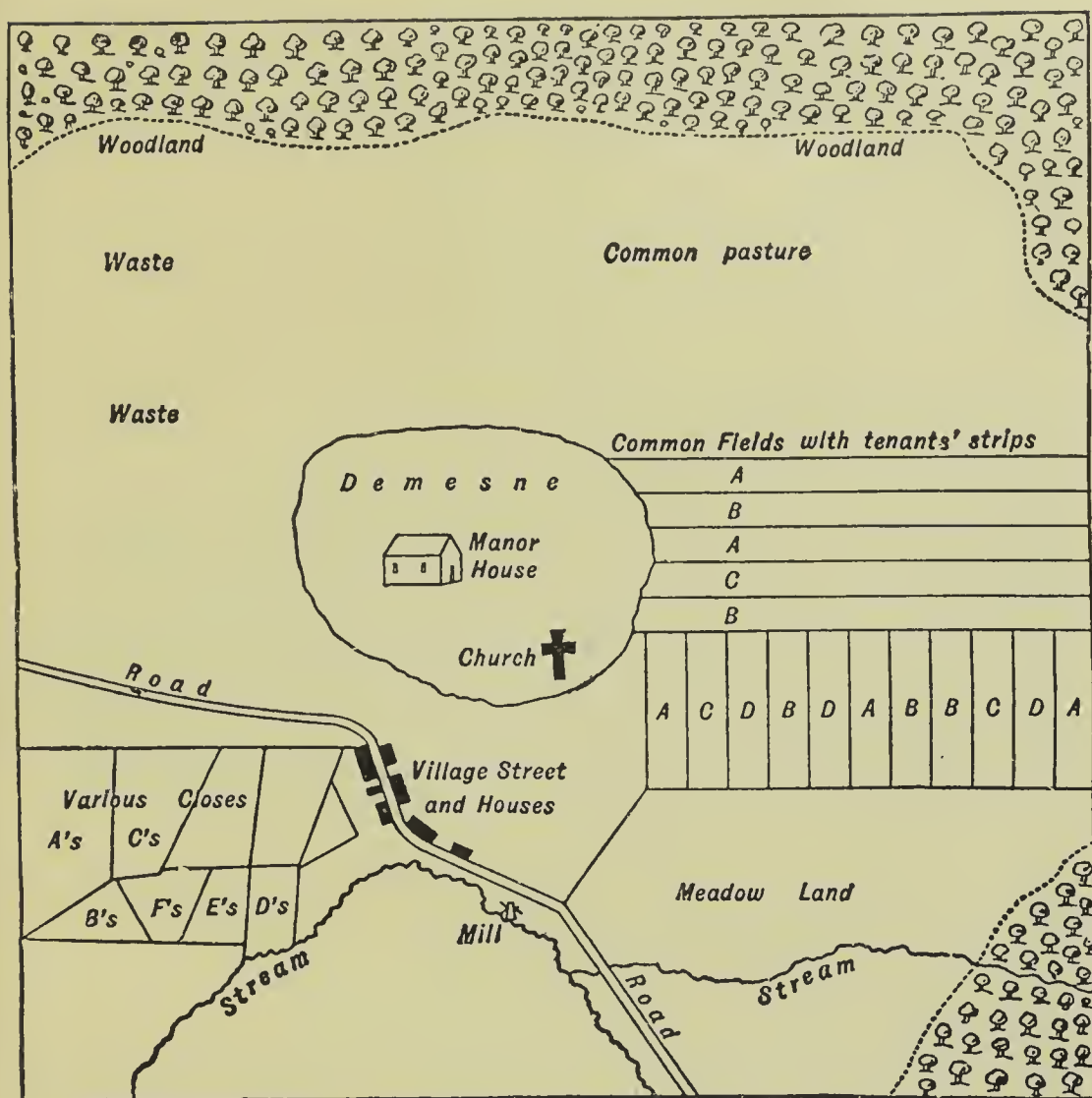
2. Somerset, however, made a fatal mistake. He tried to coerce the Scots, and this is a policy which has always failed whenever tried. He marched an army into Scotland, and at Pinkie, on a hillside near Edinburgh, inflicted a terrible defeat on the Scots. This was a strange way to go a-wooing, and it did not prosper. The five-year-old queen was hurried to France, where she was afterwards married to the Dauphin. The only result of Somerset's campaign was to increase the hatred of the Scots for the English. The Scottish war was followed by a French war, in which Boulogne, the only foreign conquest which Henry the Eighth had made, was lost.

3. In the next year two rebellions broke out in England.

The first was a Catholic rising in Devonshire and Cornwall. This the Protector put down with an iron hand. The second, however, was of quite a different character, and Somerset had some sympathy with the grievances which gave rise to it. History was again repeating itself, for in the eastern counties a new "hurling time" was in progress. Under a tanner named Robert Ket, the peasants were up in arms demanding an improvement in their social condition.

4. Let us see what led to their grave discontent. The suppression of the monasteries had thrown enormous numbers of people out of work, and the land swarmed with beggars. There were no monastic charities to help them in poverty or sickness, and they daily grew more and more wretched. Then, again, most of the landlords who now had possession of the monastic lands came from the towns, and had no sympathy with the country population. Everywhere they evicted the peasants, and turned the arable land into sheep farms. Wool was much more valuable than wheat, and the new landlords were in a hurry to get rich. Henry the Eighth had passed a law against turning arable land into pasture, but the landlords easily evaded it. They ran a single furrow across a meadow, and described it as "arable."

5. Then, too, the peasants complained that the "commons" were being enclosed. Let me explain this. Here is a diagram of an English manor. You notice that the common fields are unfenced, and are divided up into acre or half-acre strips, with a "baulk" of grass between them. Some of the strips belong to the lord. The rest of the strips are assigned to his tenants; but no man, lord or tenant, has



his strips in a continuous row. The scattered character of his strips in the common fields must have been very inconvenient to the landlord, and he therefore was tempted to throw all his strips together and enclose them. In doing so he frequently took a large slice of the tenants' land at the same time, and this naturally caused a great outcry on the part of the tenants.

6. Then, again, you notice that between the "mark" * and the arable fields is a stretch of land called the "waste," or common. On this land all the tenants of the manor had grazing and other rights. Now that the rage for sheep-farming had taken possession of the landlords, they fenced in this waste or common, stocked it with sheep, and denied the tenants access to it. Enclosures of this kind had been going on during the previous reign, and Sir Thomas More in his "Utopia" says, "Your sheep may be said now to devour men, and to unpeople not only villages but towns."

7. Another grievance of which the people loudly complained was the issue of coins worth only a fraction of their face value. This is a device which is as wicked as it is ruinous. Henry the Eighth, when in great straits for money, had begun the bad practice, and now the shilling was really worth only one-seventh of what it had been in the early part of his reign. Finally, the peasants complained of the great difficulty which a poor man experienced when he tried to get law and justice.

8. These were very real grievances, and men flocked to Ket's banner until he had a very considerable force of foot and artillery behind him. The Earl of Northampton, in command of the royal troops, was driven back, and Norwich was stormed. "The King of Norfolk and Suffolk," as Ket styled himself, was only overcome when the Earl of Warwick, afterwards Duke of Northumberland, led a hired force of Italians and Germans against him. Ket was hanged, and the rebellion died out.

9. The use of these hired soldiers added to the unpop-

* See Book IV., page 58.

ularity of Somerset. His failure in France was a blow to the national pride, and his spoiling of the churches had disgusted the people at large. While he was pulling down the cloisters of St. Paul's to build his palace of Somerset House, the day of his doom was rapidly approaching. In the year 1549 the council deposed him and sent him to the Tower; but he was soon released, and readmitted to the council as an ordinary member.



SOMERSET HOUSE, LONDON.

Erected (1776-86) on the site of the Duke of Somerset's Palace.

10. His successor in the protectorship was Warwick, the son of one of the two lawyers who had helped Henry the Seventh to plunder his people, and had been executed by Henry the Eighth. There was some good in Somerset, but Warwick was wholly selfish and greedy. He was as incompetent as Somerset, and far more cruel and unscrupulous.

11. Warwick had no fixed religious views, but finding the Protestant party the stronger in the State, he took up its cause with zeal and vigour. A "Second Book of Common Prayer" was issued, and its Protestant character was very marked. Warwick also tried to reform the coinage,

but as he would only give sixpence for the debased shillings his action was not popular. A treaty with France surrendering Boulogne still further added to his unpopularity, and ere long he became the best-hated man in the country.

12. Somerset attempted to regain his old power, but Warwick, who had now become Duke of Northumberland,



EDWARD VI.

(From a picture in the Royal Collection at Windsor.)

brought him to trial before a body of hostile peers. He was found guilty, and the young king records in his diary on January 22, 1552: "The Duke of Somerset had his head cut off upon Tower Hill between eight and nine o'clock in the morning."

13. Northumberland had obtained a great hold over the boy king, who looked up to him as to a father. He carefully removed from the council all who might oppose him, and then proceeded to aim

at the throne itself. His son, Lord Guilford Dudley, had married Lady Jane Grey, granddaughter of the Duchess of Suffolk, and therefore heiress to the throne, according to Henry the Eighth's will, after Mary and Elizabeth and their heirs. She was a clever, well-educated girl of sixteen, as good as she was beautiful. She had no ambition to be

queen, and only lent herself to Northumberland's designs when she was assured that the Protestant faith was in danger.

14. Northumberland now persuaded the young king to make a will naming Lady Jane Grey as his successor. By dint of bullying and bribery the members of the council were won over, and one by one they added their signatures to the document. Cranmer held out for some time, but Edward—now on his deathbed—pleaded with him so earnestly that at last he too yielded.

15. While Edward was sinking into his grave, Northumberland was gathering troops and making ready for the accession of Lady Jane Grey. On July 6, 1553, the young king died, and three days later the heralds proclaimed Queen Jane in London. Not a hat was tossed in the air, and not a cheer was raised.

Northumberland attempted to seize Mary, but she was already in safety in a Norfolk castle not far from the sea. London declared for her; the nobles and gentry flocked to her. Northumberland's troops dispersed, and he very soon found that there was no support for his daughter-in-law anywhere. With tears streaming down his cheeks he himself proclaimed Mary as queen, vainly hoping that by so doing he might save his head.



LADY JANE GREY.



Execution of Lady Jane Grey.

Painted by Paul Delvaux.

13. PHILIP AND MARY.

1. Look at a map of Ireland. In the province of Leinster you will see two adjoining counties called respectively King's County and Queen's County. You will notice that the chief town of King's County is Philipstown, and that of Queen's County Maryborough. Why were these counties so called, and how did the county towns come by their names? The answers to these questions introduce us to that English queen who married a Spanish prince, and thus gave England a Spanish king.

2. Edward the Sixth died in his sixteenth year, and, according to the will of Henry the Eighth, Mary, the daughter of Catherine of Aragon, came to the throne. Mary was a strict and devout Catholic, full of faith in the old creed, and a bitter opponent of the Protestants. She found most of the people ready to welcome her, for they were not yet in full sympathy with the Reformation, which had been pressed forward so vigorously in her brother's short reign.

3. Mary entered London in August 1553, and her first act was to release the Catholic bishops Bonner and Gardiner, and to imprison certain Protestant bishops. Then she set herself steadily to undo the work of the Reformation. She firmly believed that she had been specially chosen by God to restore the old Catholic faith in England. In carrying out this policy she destroyed Catholicism in England.

4. At first she was not unpopular. When, however, she announced that she was about to marry Philip of Spain, many of her people were greatly displeased. Philip's

father was the great Emperor, Charles the Fifth, the most powerful monarch of his time. Not only was Charles master of Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and the newly-discovered regions in America, but Emperor of Germany as well. Now Charles was the great friend and servant of the Pope, the champion of the Catholics and the bitter enemy of the Protestants. You will remember that he tried to crush Luther, but failed. He had, however, been more successful in the Netherlands, where the Reformation had made great strides. There he set up the Inquisition, which undertook the work of wiping out what the Church called heresy.

5. When the English Protestants learned that the son of this man was to be their king, they were greatly alarmed. Risings broke out in the west and centre of the country, but were quickly put down. A rumour that the Spaniards were coming to conquer the realm roused the men of Kent, who marched on London under the leadership of Sir Thomas Wyatt. Fearing that the gates of the capital would be thrown open at his approach, Mary boldly rode to the Guildhall and begged the citizens of London to be loyal to her. They responded to her call, and when Wyatt reached Temple Bar he was practically alone. He was executed on Tower Hill, and shortly afterwards Lady Jane Grey and her husband suffered the same fate. The execution of the young, innocent girl may seem to us unnecessary, but Mary was led to believe that her throne would not be safe so long as the "eleven days' queen" lived.

6. Having crushed her rebellious subjects, Mary now persuaded Parliament to agree to the Spanish marriage.

Before it took place the nation was reconciled with the Pope. The two Houses of Parliament voted that the country return to the obedience of the Pope, and on bended knee the members were granted forgiveness. In the summer of the year 1554 the marriage took place ; but Philip only remained in the country about a year, during which time he urged Mary to proceed with the performance of what he and she considered to be their sacred duty—namely, the restoration of Catholicism.

7. Philip was unable to settle down in his wife's country. He disliked England, and he hated the power of the Parliament. In September 1555 he quitted England, and only once, and then for a brief time, did he return. In October of the same year his father retired to a monastery, and Philip reigned in his stead as the most powerful sovereign in Europe. In 1557 the Irish counties—King's County and Queen's County—were formed in honour of Philip and Mary, and their names were respectively given to the county towns of the new divisions.

8. Deprived of her husband, and racked by painful disease, Mary now began to throw her whole heart into the work of stamping out Protestantism in England. Her father's cruel law against heretics was once more put into force, and burning at the stake was made the penalty for all who spoke against Catholicism. She began by burning Bishop Hooper at Gloucester, and before her death some two hundred people died in this way.

9. Bishops Latimer and Ridley were executed together in front of Balliol College, Oxford, near the spot where the Martyrs' Memorial now stands. They met their cruel fate

with the utmost heroism. As the flames wrapped round them Latimer uttered his remarkable prophecy, "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley; play the man. We shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England as, I trust, shall never be put out." The nation was horrified at the queen's cruelty. Some one wrote to Bonner, her chief agent in the persecution, "You have lost the hearts of twenty thousand that were rank Papists a year ago."

10. Archbishop Cranmer, who had helped Henry to divorce Catherine, Queen Mary's mother, and had taken a leading part in advancing the Reformation during the days of Edward the Sixth, was also a victim. He was sent to the Tower in 1553. When his doom was pronounced, his courage, which was always feeble, gave way, and he tried to win his pardon by renouncing all the opinions which he had formerly held. Nothing, however, could save him, and he was burnt at the stake in the year 1556. In his last hours he showed wonderful courage, and kept his promise to thrust first into the flames the hand with which he had written his recantation.

11. It is impossible not to be sorry for Mary. In feeble health, miserable and soured by the desertion of her husband, filled with anxious fears for the future of her kingdom, and conscious of the hatred of many, she honestly believed that she was doing the will of Heaven in burning and torturing those of her subjects whose religious teaching seemed to her dangerous and wrong. Every week her people grew more and more discontented, and every week her health and spirits grew worse.

12. In spite of the pledges which Mary had given at her

marriage, she now dragged England into the war against France which Philip was waging. The war ended in disaster, and "the chief jewel of the realm"—Calais—was captured. This "gateway into France" had long been neglected. The English garrison only numbered five hundred men, and owing to the carelessness of the Government it was without food and supplies. The French attack had been anticipated, and the governor had begged again and again for assistance, but this only arrived after Calais had fallen.

13. For two hundred years Calais had been in English hands, and though its garrison and fortifications were costly, it had, at least, given us the command of the "narrow seas." Now England was without a foot of soil on French ground, and Englishmen grew bitterly angry at the thought. They felt themselves disgraced. Mary's health utterly gave way beneath the blow. "When I am dead," she cried, "you will find 'Calais' written on my heart!"

14. Ten months later Mary died. She had striven to re-establish Catholicism in the land, but by the rigorous persecution of the "heretics" she had paved the way for Protestantism instead. During her short "reign of terror" she had sickened her subjects of the "thumb-screw and the stake for the glory of the Lord," and many of them were now ready to accept the doctrines of the reformers. A great burst of joy swept over the country when Elizabeth, Mary's sister, was proclaimed queen.

14. RIVAL QUEENS.

1. On page 82 you see the portraits of two of the most famous queens who ever lived. These portraits are not imaginary, but are the work of painters to whom the queens actually gave sittings. The first portrait is that of Queen Elizabeth. It is taken from the picture painted for the queen, and presented by her to Sir Henry Sidney. It still hangs at Penshurst, the old home of the Sidneys, near Tunbridge, in Kent.

2. The second portrait is that of Mary Queen of Scots. It is a drawing made by Francis Clouet, a French artist at the Court of France soon after Mary's husband, the King of France, had died. These rival queens were cousins, and sovereigns of neighbouring countries. They differed, however, in character and in faith ; and in the end, by force of circumstances, the one became the jailer and the executioner of the other.

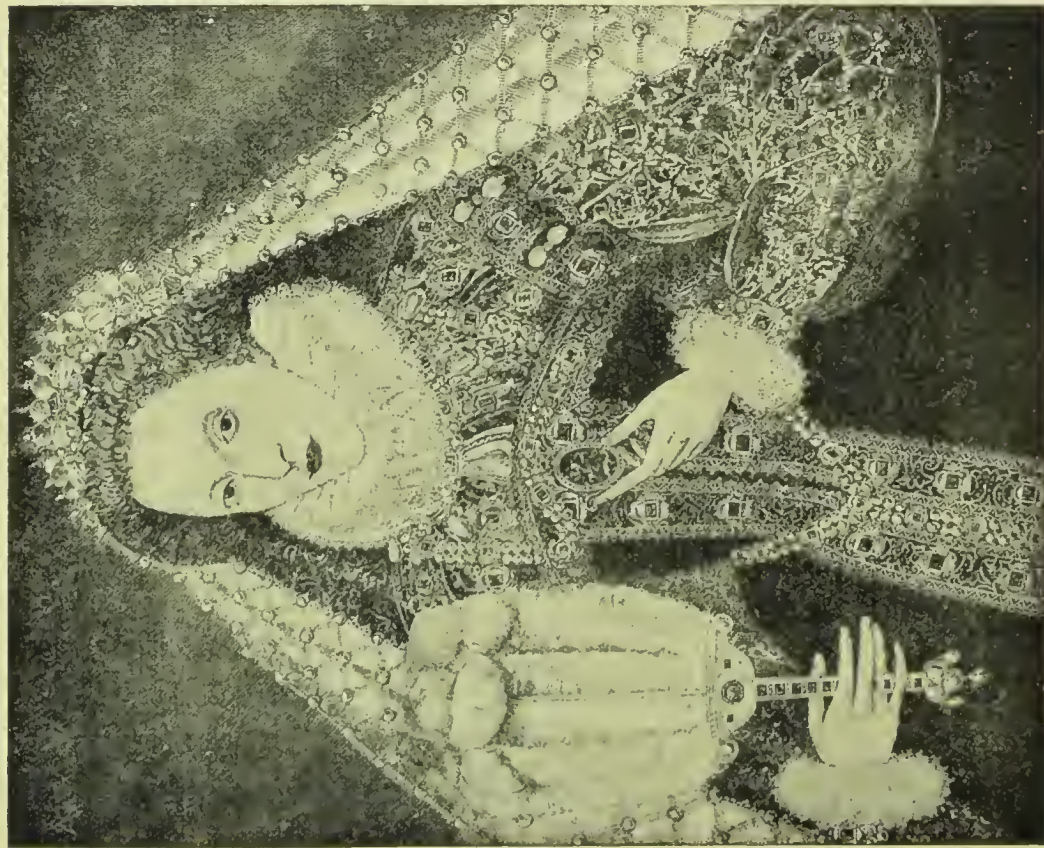
3. Elizabeth came to the throne in 1558. She found England a country of small account, beset with enemies and without an ally. The bloodshed and misgovernment of Mary's reign had brought the land to the verge of a revolt. A ruinous and useless war with France had robbed her of her last Continental possession, and thus struck a blow at her national pride. She had neither army nor navy, nor the means of raising them. Her one hope lay in her new queen.

4. Elizabeth was a strange compound of virtues and failings. She inherited her father's bluff, hearty manner, his dauntless courage, his desire to be popular with his people, and his violent self-will. From her mother she derived her

love of splendour, her gaiety, and her wit. She was a bold rider, a good shot, a graceful dancer, a skilled musician, and an excellent scholar. Nevertheless, she had many faults. She was vain, ungrateful, untruthful, niggardly, and fond of double-dealing ; but her good qualities—her strength of character, her cautious nature, and her sound judgment—were just the qualities which England then needed.

5. Elizabeth had no particular love for the new faith, or indeed for any faith or form of worship. She wished to offend neither Catholic nor Protestant, and to set up an English Church to which both could belong. Mary's bishops, however, would have nothing to do with her. With one exception they refused to take part in her coronation, and this made her send for the Protestant bishops who had been exiled by Mary. Then Elizabeth took up her father's old position and declared herself head of the realm and Church alike, though she dropped the words " Head of the Church " from the royal title. A Prayer Book was issued, and was ordered to be used in all the churches ; and a few years later, the " Thirty-nine Articles," which set forth the doctrines of the Church of England, were drawn up and adopted by Parliament. Thus the Church of England was established.

6. During Elizabeth's reign England was beset by many foes. Philip of Spain soon became a bitter enemy. He offered to marry Elizabeth, in order to maintain his hold on England ; but though she hated him, she refused his offer with fair words, because she did not desire war. Philip was very angry, and Elizabeth, fearing that he might be dangerous, made peace with the King of France and left Calais in his hands. The time was fast arriving when Philip



QUEEN ELIZABETH.

(From the portrait presented by her to Sir Henry Sidney.)



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

(From the drawing by Francis Clouet.)

Rival Queens.

would be extremely dangerous. In the meantime the storm-centre was Scotland. In order to explain how the trouble arose, we must take a rapid survey of the history of Scotland during the preceding two hundred and seventy years.

7. In Book IV. I told you how Scotland won back her independence at the battle of Bannockburn. After the death of King Robert the Bruce in 1329, the heir to the Scottish throne was David, a little boy of six years of age. Edward the Third saw his opportunity, and secretly supported Edward Baliol, the exiled son of the "puppet king." Baliol took ship for Scotland, and with the help of a number of the nobles soon won the greater part of his father's realm. He was crowned at Scone, and young David Bruce had to flee to France for safety. Soon, however, the Scots rose against their new king, and chased him back to England. Then Edward marched northward, and at the battle of Halidon Hill, near Berwick, defeated the Scots with great slaughter.

8. Edward Baliol was placed on the throne for a second time, but his seat was very insecure, and after several years of fighting he was finally driven from the kingdom. For the rest of his life he lived in England on the bounty of Edward. Eight years after the battle of Halidon Hill, when the Hundred Years' War was occupying all the energies of Edward, young David came into his own.

9. In 1346, as the ally of the French king, David invaded England, and, as you already know, was defeated and captured at Nevil's Cross. He was a captive in the Tower of London for eleven years, and only regained his freedom by promising to pay a ransom of one hundred thousand marks in ten years.

10. David died in 1371, and the crown passed to his nephew, Robert the Steward, the founder of the Stuart line, who was crowned at Scone as Robert the Second. At first he kept peace with England, but Border raids and skirmishes between the Scots and the English lords soon began, and continued throughout his reign. Robert died in 1390, and was followed by his son, who also took the name of Robert. He was a poor, half-witted person, and could not keep his nobles in order. In his time the power of the crown sank to nothing.

11. In 1405 young Prince James, the heir to the Scottish throne, was shipped off to France both for safety and in order to finish his education. When his ship was off Flamborough Head, in Yorkshire, it was captured by an English ship. The prince was carried to London, and afterwards taken to Windsor, where Henry the Fourth kept him as a hostage for the good behaviour of the Scots. Henry treated the young prince well, and gave him an excellent education. James was a clever man and a poet of no mean renown. He recovered his freedom in 1424, and with his return a new period of Scottish history begins.

12. In the thirteen years of his short but remarkable reign he did wonders for Scotland. He restored order and justice ; he attacked the Highland clans in their northern fastnesses, and made them swear fealty to him. He also tried to curb his nobles, but they were too strong for him. A band of them burst into the royal chamber at Perth and left him dead upon his own hearthstone, with sixteen wounds in his body.

13. For the next fifty years the story of Scotland is the

struggle between the kings and the great house of Douglas. Not till 1456 were the Douglasses overthrown and the king really master of the land. Scotland cried aloud for peace, but the alliance with France was so close that every quarrel between France and England meant war on the Scottish border. At length, in the reign of Henry the Seventh, an attempt was made to bring about a better understanding between the two countries. A marriage was arranged between James the Fourth of Scotland and Margaret, Henry's eldest daughter. This marriage led, a century later, to the union of the Scottish and English crowns in the person of James the First, the successor to Elizabeth.

14. As you already know, Henry the Eighth in the early part of his reign revived the old quarrel with France, and by so doing called into life the old alliance between France and Scotland. While his brother-in-law's army was absent in Flanders James crossed the Tweed with the flower of Scotland. He was met by an English army at Flodden Hill, and after a long and doubtful battle was defeated and slain.

15. James the Fifth was only two years of age when his father was killed, so again a child was heir to the throne. When he arrived at man's estate he too was hostile to England, and war once more broke out. At Solway Moss James the Fifth was utterly routed, and the defeat is said to have broken his heart. A few days before his death a little daughter was born to him. She was Mary, afterwards the famous Queen of Scots.

16. When Mary was five years of age, King Henry suggested that she should be married to his delicate little son, afterwards Edward the Sixth. The Scots refused, and an

English army invaded Scotland and sacked Leith and Edinburgh. You already know that after Henry's death the Protector Somerset again crossed the border and defeated the Scots with great slaughter at Pinkie. The little queen was at once hurried to France, where she grew up at the court of the king, and became far more French than Scottish.

17. In 1554 Mary of Guise, the widow of James the Fifth and the mother of the young queen, became regent of Scotland. She was a French lady, and naturally did all in her power to promote the interests of her native land. Four years later she married her daughter, the Queen of Scots, to the Dauphin of France. He became king in the following year, and thus Mary was Queen both of Scotland and of France. Her husband died after about a year of happy married life, and then, at the age of nineteen, Mary set sail for her northern kingdom.

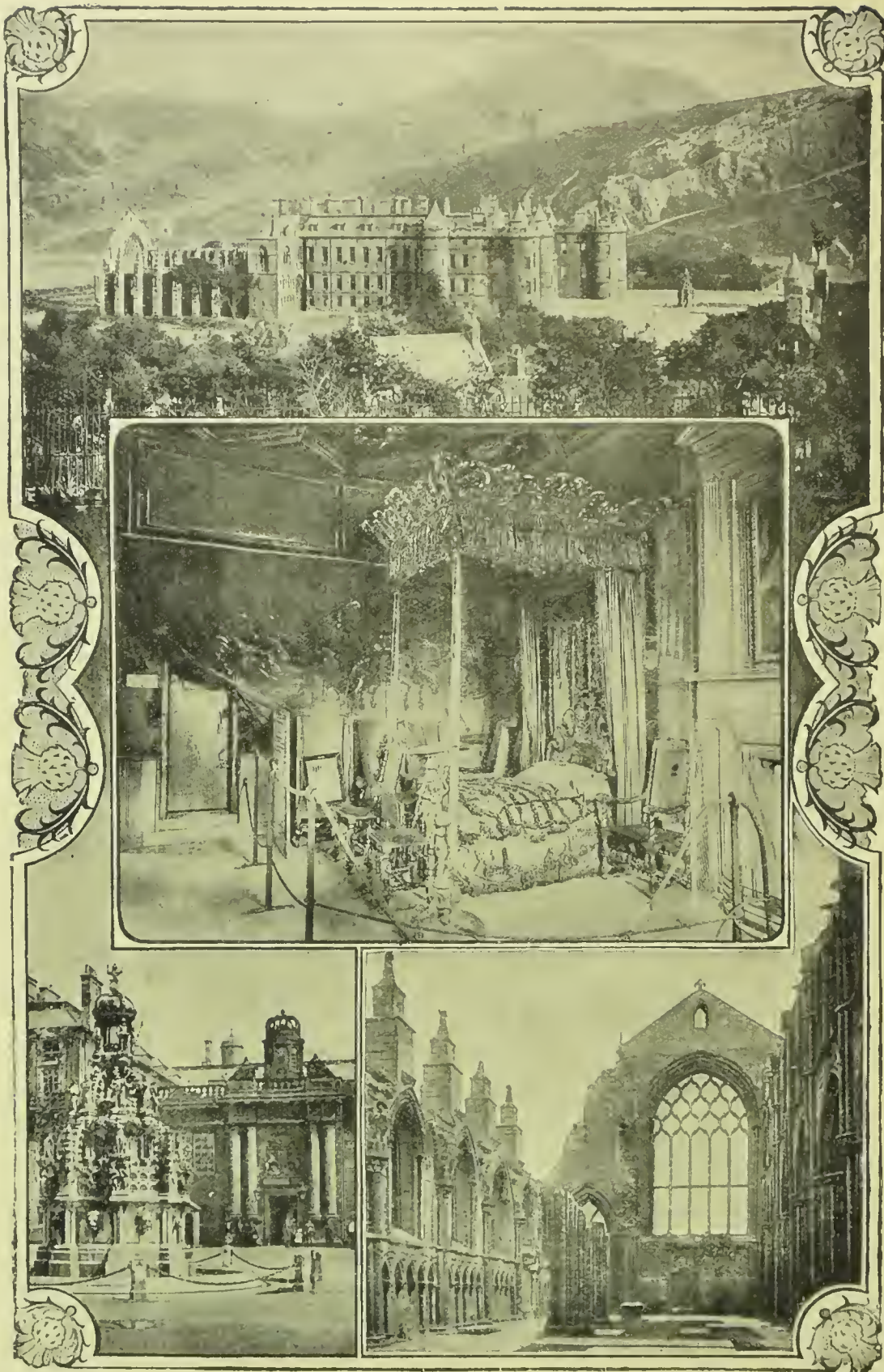
18. The new Queen of Scotland was an extremely beautiful woman and the most charming princess of her time. She was fond of music, dancing, laughter, and gaiety, yet she also loved risk and adventure and the clang of arms. Once, when riding on a foray to the north, she told her companions that she wished she were a man "to walk on the cawsey with a Glasgow buckler and a broadsword." In statecraft she was in all respects the equal of Queen Elizabeth. Her beauty, grace of manner, and kindliness of speech charmed all who came into contact with her. In later years she was charged with many crimes, but she suffered greatly; and even to this day she has champions who believe that she was more sinned against than sinning.

15. A TRAGIC HISTORY.

1. Come with me to Edinburgh, the beautiful capital of Scotland. You already know that Edwin, one of the early Northumbrian kings, is said to have built a castle on a lofty basalt rock three miles south of the Firth of Forth, and twenty-two miles from the open sea. Around this fortress the city of Edinburgh has grown up. The most picturesque feature of Edinburgh is the old castle, which has borne the brunt of many sieges during its long and warlike history, and still keeps watch and ward over the northern capital. What is called the "Royal mile" extends from the castle to the palace of Holyrood, and almost every inch of the way there is something of historic interest.

2. No visitor leaves Edinburgh without making a pilgrimage to Holyrood Palace and the adjoining Abbey. The palace is still a royal residence, and has been occupied by the King in recent years. The moment you see the old building the name of Mary Queen of Scots springs to your lips. You will be shown the very apartments which she occupied in almost the same state in which she left them. In the palace of Holyrood one of the most tragic scenes in all her tragic history took place.

3. Before we proceed with her story, however, I must tell you something of the state of the country immediately before Mary left her happy home in France and sailed with a heavy heart for Scotland. As you already know, the English Reformation was mainly the work of the Government. The Scottish Reformation, however, was the work of



SCENES AT HOLYROOD.

The central picture represents Queen Mary's bedchamber.

the people. Henry the Eighth, by force of his own will, had cut off the Church of England from that of Rome, and in the time of Elizabeth it became a Protestant Church. In Scotland the Government opposed the change ; but it was at last forced to give way, for the great mass of the nation had accepted the teachings of the reformers.

4. In 1557 the leading reformers in Scotland bound themselves to stand by one another to the death in support of their beliefs. They signed a bond which was called the Covenant. Two years later a second Covenant was drawn up and signed by all classes of the people. They pledged themselves to throw off the authority of the Pope, and they adopted the English Bible and the Prayer Book of Edward the Sixth. The guiding spirit of this movement was John Knox, a man of great worldly wisdom and a preacher of great power. He was perfectly fearless, and his character is well set forth in the words which were spoken at his graveside : "Here lyeth a man who in his life never feared the face of man." You will see a slab marking his grave in the courtyard between St. Giles' Church and Parliament House in Edinburgh.

5. The burning of Walter Mill, a Protestant of over eighty years of age, roused the people to frenzy. The reformers gathered their forces, seized Edinburgh, and called a Parliament, which deposed the regent. Elizabeth sent them help, and the leaders of the Reformation became the chief power in the land. Catholicism was done away with, and Protestantism became the established or State religion.

6. This had scarcely been done when Mary Queen of

Scots returned to her native land. She found the Protestant party in power, and John Knox the most important of its leaders. Mary was a strong Catholic, and she intended to bring back the Roman Catholic religion to Scotland. In this she failed utterly, because the greater number of her people were bitterly opposed to her. In 1565 she married her cousin, Henry Darnley, a Roman Catholic like herself.

7. While in France, Mary had put forth a claim to the English throne. Now she offered to give up that claim if Elizabeth would recognize her as heir to the English throne. Mary said that she asked for nothing more than her due. If Elizabeth should die without children, she would be the heir to the throne by right of birth, though not according to the will of Henry the Eighth. Elizabeth, however, would not recognize Mary as her successor.

8. Soon after this there was a rising in Scotland. It was put down, and for a time the queen triumphed. Then followed a bitter quarrel between Mary and Darnley, who was a vain and vicious man, and had become very angry because his wife refused to allow him to rule in her name. Some of the nobles were jealous of an Italian named Rizzio, who acted as the queen's private secretary. These nobles came to an understanding with Darnley, and Rizzio was murdered in Holyrood Palace (March 1566). If you visit the palace, you will be shown the very room in which the savage deed was done.

9. Mary was soon to have her revenge, for within a year of Rizzio's murder Darnley was killed in the lonely house of "Kirk of Field," which stood on the site of the present University of Edinburgh. No one knew exactly how he



The Murder of Rizzio.

(From the picture by John Opie, R.A., in the Art Gallery of the Corporation of London.)

had met his death or who had killed him, but most people thought that the Earl of Bothwell, who had fallen in love with the queen, had done the foul deed.

10. When Mary married Bothwell, some three months after her husband's death, her people were furious with her. They said that she had not only been a party to her husband's murder, but had actually rewarded the murderer by marrying him. The result was a rebellion, which ended in Mary's capture at Carberry Hill (June 1567). She was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, and was forced to give up the crown to her infant son James. Parliament gave the regency to Mary's half-brother, James, Earl of Moray.

11. The Protestant party now recovered its power, and became supreme. Within a year, however, Mary escaped, and a strong body of friends joined her. They were defeated at the battle of Langside, near Glasgow, and Mary was forced to seek the protection of Elizabeth, who refused to see her, but would not allow her to return to Scotland. The Scots demanded that she should be given up to them, and Elizabeth appointed judges to inquire into the question of her guilt. Nothing came of the trial, but Mary was not allowed to go free. For nearly nineteen years she was held captive in England, being moved about from castle to castle.

12. The contest between Catholics and Protestants on the Continent was now at its height. In the Netherlands the long persecution of the people and the attempt to rob them of their liberties roused a fierce rebellion. Philip sent the Duke of Alva with ten thousand men to the Low Countries, and then began an awful series of massacres which have made his name infamous in history.

13. The French Protestants, or Huguenots as they were called, had been in arms since 1562, and now the persecuted in both countries begged Elizabeth to send them help. Elizabeth, however, would not dispatch a single soldier, though large numbers of English and Scottish volunteers lent their swords to the cause. She knew that as long as France and Spain were busy putting down civil war England was safe from attack. Secretly, however, she sent money to the Huguenots, and allowed refugees from the Netherlands to take shelter in England. Openly she would do nothing.

14. In 1569 news arrived that the Pope was about to depose Elizabeth, and declare Mary Queen of England. At the same time there was a great rising of the Catholics of the north. The Earls of Northumberland and Westmorland marched into Durham, the Bible and Prayer Book were torn to pieces, and Mass was once more said in Durham Cathedral. The majority of the Catholics, however, did not join in the revolt. As the rebels received little support they dispersed, and the leaders paid the penalty either in death or ruin. Next year the long-expected Bull of Deposition arrived. While most of the Catholics remained loyal, some of the more violent schemed to depose and even to murder Elizabeth.

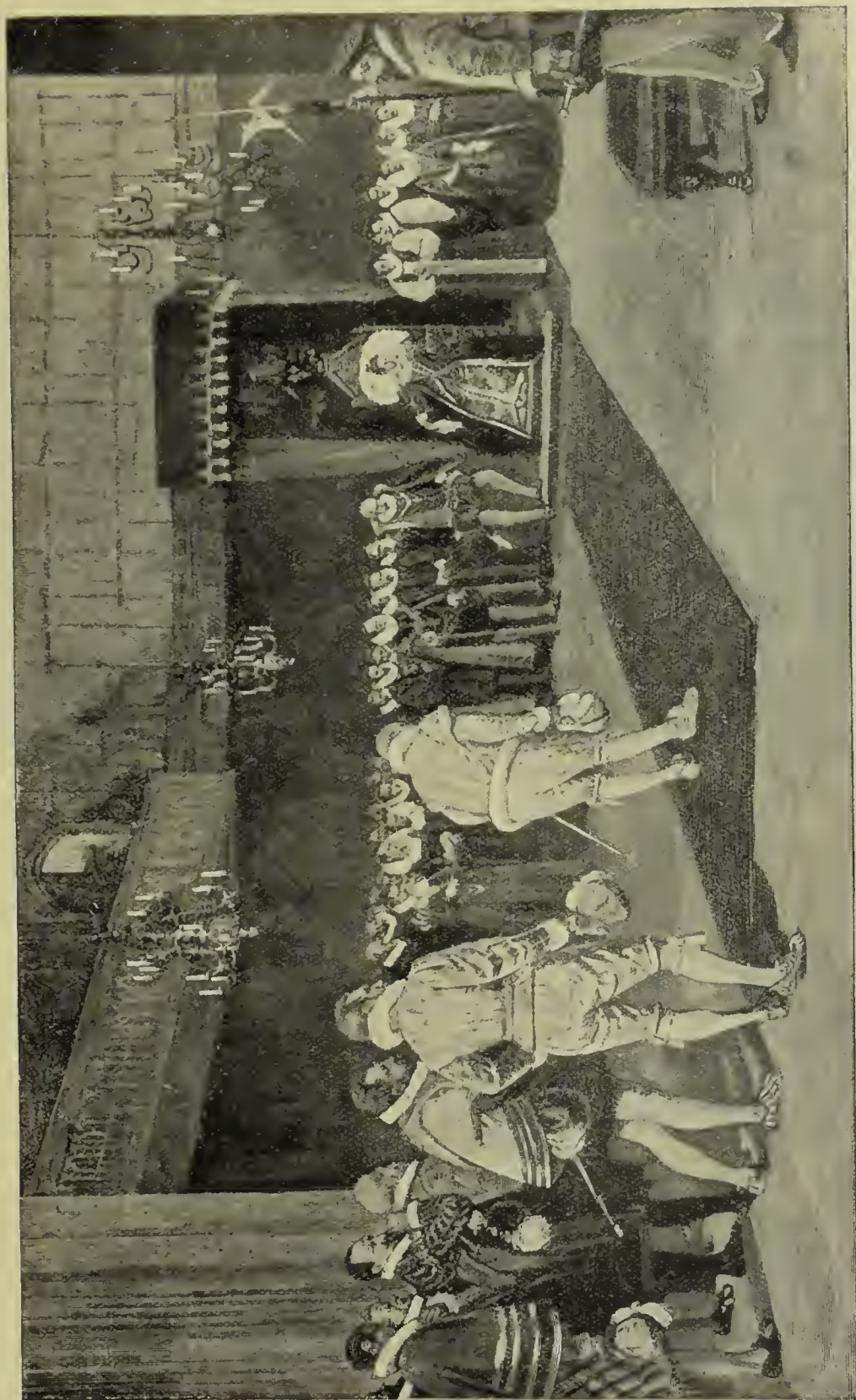
15. One of these plots, known as the "Ridolfi Plot," from the name of an Italian banker who played an important part in it, was headed by the Duke of Norfolk, who undertook to seize Elizabeth and marry Mary. Some of Norfolk's papers, however, fell into the hands of Cecil, Elizabeth's great minister, and the whole plot was exposed.

Norfolk was beheaded, and many in the nation cried aloud for Mary's blood.

16. These constant plots against the life of the queen caused Parliament to pass a number of harsh laws against the Catholics, and especially against the priests, who were said to be trying to re-establish Catholicism in the land, and were encouraging conspiracies in favour of Mary. It is said that during Elizabeth's reign about one hundred and twenty priests were either executed or perished in the fever-stricken jails in which they were imprisoned.

17. Elizabeth was still determined not to interfere openly in Continental affairs. When the horrible massacre of twenty thousand French Protestants on St. Bartholomew's Day, 1572, sent a thrill of horror through England and aroused a fierce cry for war, she did nothing to help the survivors in their struggle, though her court went into mourning, and she received the French ambassador with marked coldness. At length a great plot was unmasked. France and Spain were to unite in an invasion of England; the English Catholics were to rise; Elizabeth was to be murdered, and Mary was to ascend the throne. Then Elizabeth saw the folly of delaying any longer. In 1585 she sent an army to Flanders, and she never did a more popular act.

18. Three years later the last Catholic plot was foiled in the very nick of time, and Elizabeth's ministers urged her to bring Mary to trial for her share in it. Elizabeth agreed, but with seeming unwillingness. Mary was tried and condemned by a commission of peers, and in February 1587 was executed at Fotheringhay Castle. She died with great dignity and courage, declaring herself a martyr for her faith.



QUEEN ELIZABETH RECEIVING THE FRENCH AMBASSADOR AFTER ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S DAY.
(from the picture by W. F. Yeames, R.A. By permission of Mrs. Coöpe.)



PLYMOUTH HOE.

16. FRANCIS DRAKE—"SEA-DOG."

1. Here is a picture of Plymouth Hoe as it is to-day. You see that it is laid out as a pleasure ground, with smoothly-shaven lawns, flower-beds, and shrubberies. Yonder is the upper portion of Smeaton's Eddystone Lighthouse, which was taken down and removed to its present position when the rocks beneath it became undermined by the sea. Here is a still more famous monument. It represents that great "sea-dog," Sir Francis Drake, the boast and pride of Plymouth, though he was born at Tavistock, fifteen miles away.

2. No British boy or girl can look on this statue and think of the hero whom it represents without feeling the

pulses stirred as with the sound of a trumpet. Drake was the greatest of Elizabethan seamen, and he stands out as the very embodiment of that spirit of restless energy and dauntless courage which surged up in our land during the "spacious days" of the Virgin Queen.

3. Here, on Plymouth Hoe, we stand on classic ground. What farewells to stout-hearted adventurers have been waved from these grassy slopes! What shouts of welcome have been raised as they sailed up the Sound laden with spoils and honours! What tears have been shed when they never returned at all! The list of great seamen who sailed from Plymouth reads like a page of romance: Thomas Stukeleigh for Florida, Sir Richard Grenville for Virginia, Sir Humphrey Gilbert for Newfoundland, Sir Martin Frobisher and Master Davis for the North-West Passage, Sir John Hawkins for the Gold Coast, and, above and beyond all, Sir Francis Drake for the circumnavigation of the world.

4. Wherever you go in Plymouth you find memorials of Francis Drake, such as the fine statue which we have already seen, the stained-glass windows in the Guildhall, and his portrait in the Council Chamber with the following quaint inscription:—

"Great Drake, whose shippe about the worlde's wild waste
In three yeeres did a golden girdle cast;
Who with fresh streames refresht this town that first,
Though kist with waters, yet did pine for thirst;
Who, both a pilote and a magistrate,
Steered in his turne the shippe of Plymouth's state.
This little table shewes his face, whose worthe
The worlde's wide table hardly can sette forthe."

5. Drake was born about the year 1540 at Crowndale Farm, near Tavistock. His father was a poor man with twelve children, and young Francis had to go out into the world to earn his living at an early age. He shipped as apprentice on a little coasting vessel, and was at once in his element. Like his great successor Nelson, he became a thoroughly practical seaman in boyhood, and throughout his life he had nothing but contempt for those who could not or would not "hale and draw with the mariners." By his diligence and attention young Drake so won the heart of the master of the coasting craft that on the old man's death he found himself the owner of the ship. He continued in the coasting trade for some years, and when about twenty-five years of age made one or two voyages to Guinea and the Spanish main.

6. About the year 1567, we first hear of him in connection with his kinsman John Hawkins, who afterwards became chief treasurer of the navy. Hawkins came of a famous seafaring family. His father, "Mr. William Hawkins of Plymouth," opened up Brazil to English trade. He actually brought back the Brazilian king with him, and presented the dusky monarch to Henry the Eighth. John Hawkins's son, Sir Richard Hawkins, was such a fine sailor that he was known as "the complete seaman."

7. At the time of which we are speaking, John Hawkins was fitting out an expedition for what we now consider to be a thoroughly wicked business—namely, the slave trade. The expedition ended in disaster. Only two ships—one of them Drake's—escaped the Spaniards, who attacked the squadron as it lay unprepared in harbour. On reaching

England, Drake tried to get the Government to obtain compensation for his losses from Spain, but all to no purpose ; and then he made up his mind to compensate himself.

8. Accordingly he made two voyages to the West Indies, and having spied out the land, equipped an expedition of two small ships, carrying three pinnaces and seventy-three men. With these he sailed for Nombre de Dios, "the granary of the West Indies, wherein the golden harvest brought from Peru and Mexico to Panama was hoarded up till it could be conveyed into Spain." After a sharp skirmish, in which Drake was severely wounded in the thigh, he found himself in possession of an enormous stack of silver bars, seventy feet long, ten feet wide, and ten feet high, as well as a vast store of gold, pearls, and jewels. He had, as he said, brought his men "to the mouth of the Treasure of the World." He could not, however, carry off his prize, and when he fainted from loss of blood, his men carried him down to the boats and set sail.

9. I cannot tell you in detail of the rest of his adventures during this remarkable voyage. He captured a large Spanish ship right inside the harbour of Cartagena, and its cargo of plate and pieces of eight was the first instalment of his compensation. Then with eighteen men he landed on the Isthmus of Panama, and, guided by the natives, marched right across it. "As they reached the highest point of the dividing ridge his guides pointed out a tree from whose top, as they told Drake, he might see the North Sea, from which he had come, and the South Sea, towards which he was going. Drake ascended the tree by steps cut in the trunk, and—first of known Englishmen—saw the sea" (the Pacific Ocean),



and "besought Almighty God of His goodness to give him life and leave to sail once in an English ship in that sea."

10. After sacking a city, capturing a mule train laden with nearly thirty tons of silver, and carrying his treasure in rafts to his ships, he set sail for England. With a fair wind he made the Scilly Islands in twenty-three days, and arrived at Plymouth on Sunday, August 9, 1573, during sermon time, when "the news of Drake's return did so speedily pass over all the church, and surpass their minds with desire and delight to see him, that very few or none remained with the preacher, all hastening to see the evidence of God's love and blessing towards our gracious queen and country."

17. FRANCIS DRAKE—CIRCUMNAVIGATOR.

1. Drake had not carried off the "Treasure of the World," but he had looted enough Spanish gold and silver to make him a rich man. He was already known to the Secretary of State, and had been permitted to relate his adventures to the queen. Now, it must always be remembered that England at this time was at peace with Spain, and that in strict law Drake and his fellows were nothing more or less than pirates, who ought to have been hanged in chains at Execution Dock.

2. King Philip was constantly complaining of them, and Elizabeth was constantly protesting that she gave them no encouragement. Yet secretly she was hand in glove with the adventurers, the partner in their expeditions, and the sharer in their plentiful spoils. It is said that she directly encouraged Drake to make his great voyage of 1577-80. No doubt she was not displeased that her seamen should cut off and divert, partly to her own pocket, those supplies of gold and silver which enabled the Spanish king to become practically the master of Europe.

3. Drake's squadron, consisting of his own ship, the *Pelican* (100 tons), the *Elizabeth* (80 tons), and three smaller vessels, not one of them larger than a small coasting ship of our own day, set sail from Plymouth early in December 1577. Their destination was kept a profound secret, but after passing the Cape Verde Islands the crews learnt that they were to sail the Pacific, and to plunder the Spanish towns along the coasts of Chili and Peru. The Spaniards had left these ports unfortified, never dreaming

that the English would be daring enough to pass the dreaded Straits of Magellan, and venture into the Pacific Ocean.

4. By the time the straits were reached Drake's squadron was reduced to three ships. In sixteen days, by dint of the most careful navigation, the cold and desolate windings of the straits were passed in safety; but no sooner had the squadron emerged on the Pacific than a furious storm swept down upon it. One ship foundered with all hands, and another, losing sight of the admiral's ship, steered for home. Thus Drake, with one vessel, now rechristened the *Golden Hind*, and eighty men, found his prayer fulfilled. He was sailing the Pacific Ocean in an English ship.

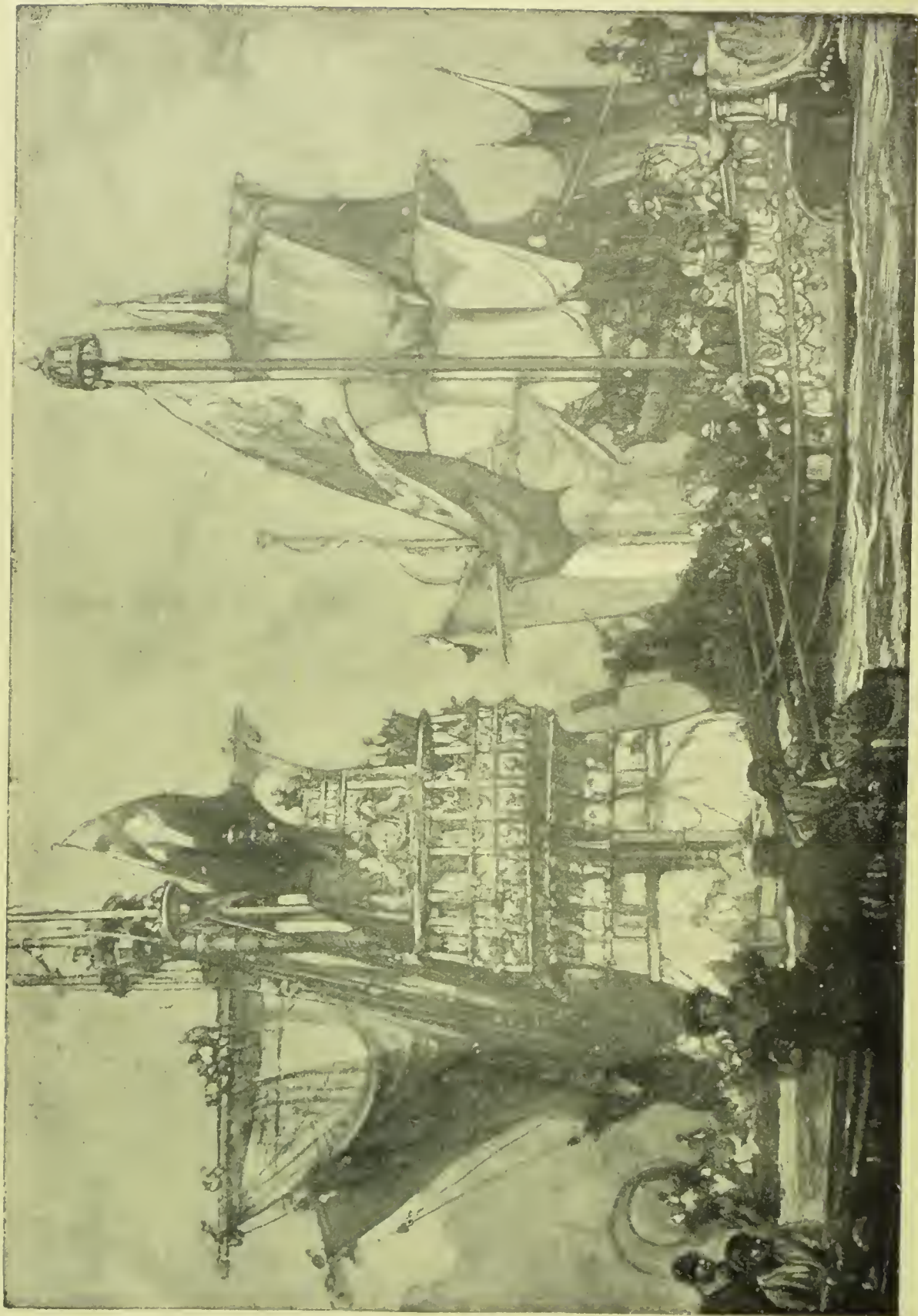
5. The storm lasted fifty-two days, and in the course of it Drake was blown so far south that he is said to have discovered Cape Horn. When at last the violence of the wind abated, he sailed north again, sweeping the unguarded coast, plundering treasure ships, and filling his hold with ingots of silver and gold. At Callao he heard that a certain treasure galleon had sailed for Panama. Hastening after her, he easily captured her, and seized twenty-six tons of silver, eighty pounds of gold, thirteen chests of money, and a store of jewels and precious stones, worth in all from £150,000 to £200,000.

6. The owner of a Spanish ship which Drake captured gives us an excellent picture of the great "sea-dog," whose name was now the terror of the Pacific. The Spaniard writes: "He is about thirty-five years old, of small size, with a reddish beard, and is one of the greatest sailors that exist, both from his skill and from his power of commanding. He has a hundred men, all in the prime of life, and

as well trained for war as if they were old soldiers of Italy. Each one is especially careful to keep his arms clean. He treats them with affection, and they him with respect.

7. "He has with him nine or ten gentlemen, younger sons of the leading men in England, who form his council. He calls them together on every occasion, and hears what they have to say ; but he is not bound by their advice, though he may be guided by it. All these dine at his table. The service is of silver, richly gilt and engraved with his arms. He has, too, all possible luxuries, even to perfumes, many of which, he told me, were given him by the queen. None of these gentlemen sit down or put on their hats in his presence without repeated permission. He dines and sups to the music of violins. His ship carries thirty large guns and a great quantity of ammunition, as well as artificers who can execute necessary repairs. He has two draughtsmen who portray the coast in its own colours, and everything is put so naturally that any one following him will have no difficulty."

8. Drake, thinking "her Majesty would rest contented with this service," was now ready to return to England. With his heavily-laden ship he feared to tempt the winds and waves of the Straits of Magellan, so he determined to sail westward and ever westward until he had encircled the globe. After refitting, he sailed on and on, calling at various islands until, after more than seven months' voyage, he reached Java. He passed the Cape of Good Hope on June 15, 1580, and on the twenty-sixth of September in the same year the *Golden Hind* sailed up Plymouth Sound, and cast anchor in the Catwater amidst a very tumult of rejoicing.



QUEEN ELIZABETH VISITING THE "GOLDEN HIND."

9. Francis Drake was at once the most popular man in England. He had

“Circled ocean’s plain profound,
And girdled earth in one continuous round.”

Ay, and he was the first Englishman to do it. Moreover, he had brought home the richest cargo of booty ever landed. With a single ship he had harried the hated Spaniard, plundered him of his colonial gains, and claimed for his land the right to penetrate all the seas of the world, in spite of any foreign power. Drake’s marvellous success sent English ships to all parts of the world. From this moment the expansion of Britain began ; her empire was in the making.

10. Philip of Spain, angered and humbled, had already demanded the punishment of the man who was, in the eyes of the Spaniards, “the master thief of the unknown world.” The queen had promised to hang Drake on his return ; but now that the land was ringing with his fame, she discovered that Philip had been aiding the rebels in Ireland, and that Drake’s plunder of his ships was a fair reprisal and not piracy at all.

11. So the *Golden Hind* was brought round to Deptford, and the queen, wearing a dress stiff with Peruvian gold, went on board the first ship that had gone round the world and knighted the first man who had lived to complete the voyage. The *Golden Hind* became as famous as Nelson’s *Victory* is to-day. For many years she was preserved at Deptford, and to dine in her cabin was a fashionable amusement. Out of the remains of her hull a chair was made, which is still preserved in the Bodleian Library at Oxford.

18. THE SPANISH ARMADA.

1. The remainder of Drake's life, busy and adventurous as it was, need not delay us long. Five years after his return from his great voyage he sailed again for the West Indies, and once more crippled Philip's power by capturing and plundering several of his richest settlements. On his return he found England in great peril. The Catholic world, horrified at the execution of Mary Queen of Scots, had raised a great cry for vengeance, and Philip of Spain, urged by the Pope, undertook the punishment of England.

2. Philip was then the most powerful monarch of Europe. His own country was poor enough, but it furnished him with multitudes of daring soldiers. He was master of the fairest and richest provinces of Italy and the great manufacturing country of Flanders. Besides this, he held vast possessions in the New World, from which he drew, when Drake and the other "sea-dogs" would let him, vast stores of gold, jewels, and silver. As the most powerful monarch of Europe and the champion of Catholicism, Philip, of all men, was the fit and proper person to avenge the poor Queen of Scots.

3. Mere zeal for the Church and a desire for vengeance, however, have rarely brought about great wars. States and monarchs usually take up arms to protect themselves from present or future attack, to secure an extension of territory, or to obtain some other advantage. So it was in the case of Philip. The capture of his treasure ships by the "sea-dogs" was a serious matter. Philip saw clearly that unless England was crushed he could not retain his empire

in the New World. Further, his Flemish subjects were in desperate revolt against him, and English troops had now joined them. The two great sources of his wealth were likely to be dried up, unless he made a great effort to overwhelm his foe. He at once prepared his Invincible Armada, and English seamen immediately began to harry the Spaniards with redoubled energy.

4. In command of a strong fleet Drake, in 1587, entered the harbour of Cadiz, and, in his own pleasant phrase, "singed the King of Spain's beard" by burning ten thousand tons of shipping. By doing so he delayed the sailing of the Armada for a whole year. Then Drake earnestly besought the queen to seek out and destroy the Armada before it came into the Channel at all. This excellent advice was not followed until it was too late, thanks to the niggardly policy of Elizabeth, who could not be prevailed upon to spend her money freely, even at this crisis.

5. In the spring of the next year the Armada set sail for the coast of the Netherlands, where the Duke of Parma was to join it with thirty thousand men. It consisted of one hundred and thirty vessels, half of them being galleons of the largest size. The ships were manned by eight thousand sailors, and overcrowded with twenty thousand soldiers. They were ill-found and ill-provisioned, and were commanded by an admiral who hardly knew a mast from an anchor. England had only thirty-four ships in the royal fleet, but almost every seaport and many rich merchants and noblemen fitted out craft to fight the Spaniard. Their crews numbered eighteen thousand men, all good seamen.

6. On shore Protestant and Catholic laid aside their

religious differences, and stood shoulder to shoulder in defence of their threatened land. The Lord High Admiral of the English fleet was Lord Howard of Effingham. Drake was vice-admiral, and almost every "sea-dog" of note commanded a ship.

7. Now let us go back to the old seaport of Plymouth for a moment. Its most glorious memory is that of the famous game of bowls played to a finish on the Hoe when Captain Fleming brought the news that his crew "had seen Castile's black fleet beyond Aurigny's isle." The cool self-confidence of Drake, who assured his comrades that there was time to finish the game and thrash the Spaniards too, was reflected in every man in the fleet. Up to quite modern times the corporation of Plymouth held an annual feast, and the bells of the old Church of St. Andrew rang out, to celebrate the great day when the Lord High Admiral and his captains embarked for the overthrow of the Spanish Armada.

8. There is no need to tell in detail the story of the gallant fight. On the nineteenth of July the sails of the Armada were seen off Plymouth, and instantly beacons flared out a wild alarm "from Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford Bay." As the Armada, in crescent shape, passed by, Howard pursued the great fleet and hung on to its rear, "plucking out its feathers one by one." For a week this running fight was kept up. The well-handled English ships fired four shots to the Dons' one, and two great galleons were captured. The Armada came to anchor off Calais, and the English fleet, reinforced by many more ships, lay to seaward of it. On the night of



The Defeat of the Armada.

*(From the picture by P. de Louthembourg, R.A., in the gallery of Greenwich Hospital.
By permission of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty.)*

Sunday, the twenty-eighth of July, eight fire-ships were lighted and sent down with the tide upon the Spanish line.

9. Panic seized the Dons, and they cut their cables and fled. The English closely followed, and inflicted a serious defeat on them off Gravelines. Then the Armada fled northward, and "the Lord sent His wind and scattered them." Only fifty-three shattered vessels out of that proud fleet returned to Spain. Thousands of Spanish corpses strewn the shores of the Orkneys, the Western Islands, and the Atlantic coasts of Ireland. Scarcely a noble family in Spain but mourned a relative.

10. The reputation of England after the defeat of the Armada was at its high-water mark. Drake was eager to smite Spain hip and thigh, and drive her from the seas. Elizabeth, however, could not be persuaded to sanction this bold policy. Nevertheless, the Spanish settlements all over the world were harried as they had never been before. In 1589 Drake sacked Corunna, tried to take Lisbon, and burned Vigo. For the next few years he followed peaceful pursuits ashore.

11. In 1595 he sailed for the last time to the West Indies, along with his old and trusty kinsman and comrade, Sir John Hawkins. The expedition, however, was not successful. The Spaniard was not to be caught napping, and Drake wore himself out in a fruitless task. On January 28, 1596, he died on board his ship off Porto Bello. His body was enclosed in a leaden coffin, and committed to the deep a few miles to seaward.

"The waves became his winding sheet, the waters were his tomb;
But for his fame, the ocean sea was not sufficient room."

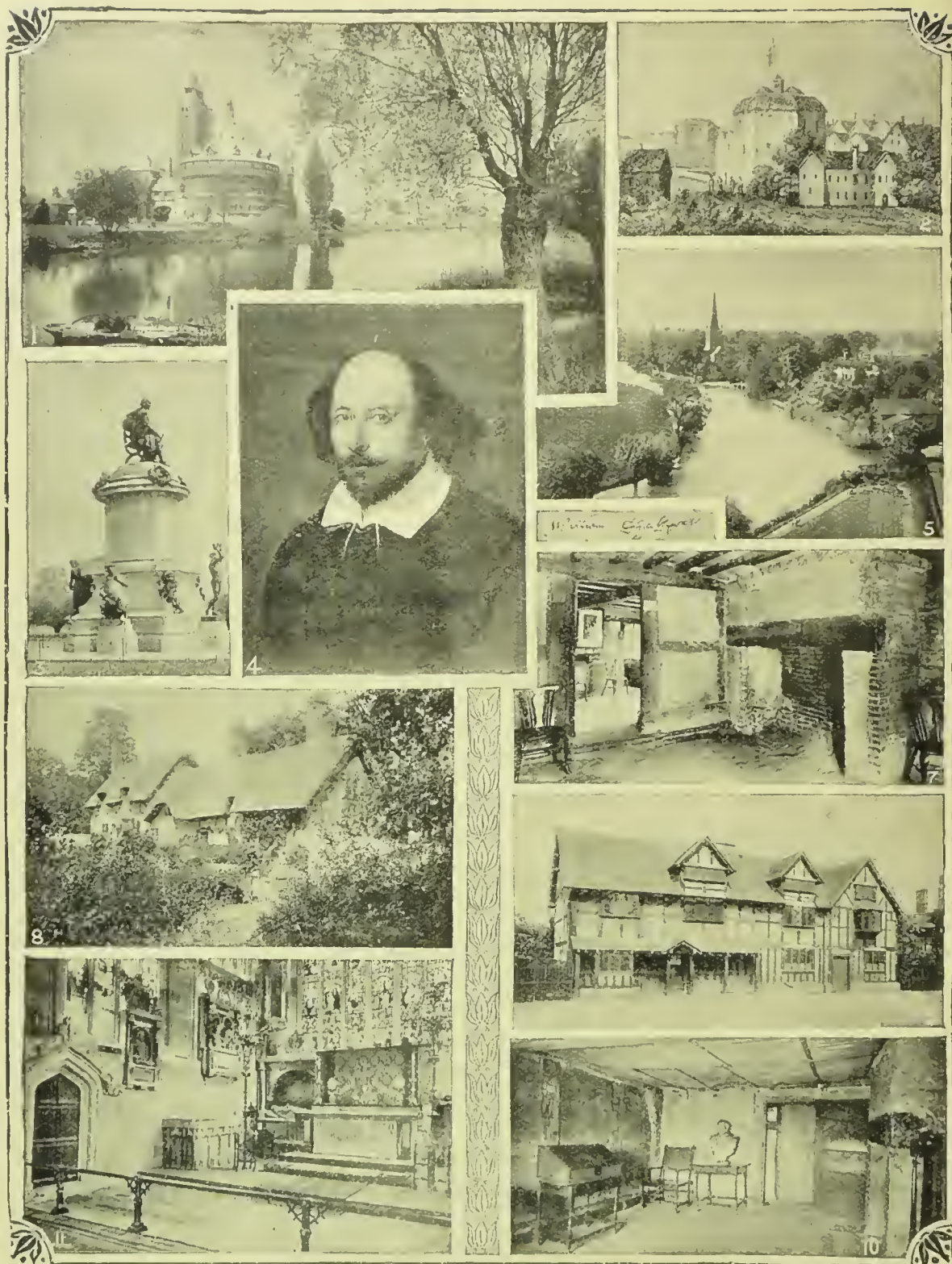
19. "A NEST OF SINGING-BIRDS."

1. Come with me to-day to the tomb of our greatest poet and playwright. No, we are not going to visit Westminster Abbey. His body does not rest beneath that proud and ancient roof, side by side with the great ones of his race. To find his grave we must travel to Warwickshire. In this county, in the very heart of England, we shall find the little old town of Stratford-on-Avon.

2. Yonder is the tall gray spire of the parish church standing amidst elms and lime-trees. Hard by flows the beautiful river, winding between its willowy banks to join the Severn. Let us enter the church and make our way to the chancel. Beneath this flat stone is the dust of William Shakespeare, the greatest poet of the British race, and perhaps of the whole world. Read the lines carved on the stone. They are said to have been written by Shakespeare himself.

"Good friend, for Jesus' sake forbear
To digg the dust enclousèd heare.
Blest be y^e man y^t spares these stones,
And curst be he y^t moves my bones."

3. No one has dared to move his bones, not even to carry them to a greater resting-place at Westminster. In a niche of the wall above is a coloured bust of the poet. It was placed in its present position a few years after Shakespeare's death. Notice the high forehead, the hazel eyes, the oval face, the pointed auburn beard, and the small moustache. Once you have seen Shakespeare's portrait.



A SHAKESPEARE PAGE.

1. Memorial Theatre, Stratford-on-Avon. 2. The Globe Theatre, Southwark. 3. Shakespeare Memorial, Stratford. 4. The Chandos portrait of Shakespeare. 5. Stratford Church and River Avon. 6. Shakespeare's autograph. 7. His birthplace: the kitchen. 8. Anne Hathaway's Cottage. 9. Shakespeare's birthplace. 10. Room in which he was born. 11. Stratford Church: the Chancel and the Monument.

you can never mistake it for that of any other man. Not far away is the house in which he was born. Every year thousands of people from all parts of the world visit it, and thus pay their homage to his great name. Close at hand is the grammar school where he received a fairly good education, and a mile away is the cottage where his wife, Anne Hathaway, lived as a girl.

4. Shakespeare was born in 1564, and he lived for the greater part of his life in Elizabeth's reign. His father was a merchant, and at one time mayor of Stratford. When Shakespeare was fourteen years of age his father became very poor, and he was obliged to take the boy from school and set him to work. What his work actually was we do not know. Some say he was a butcher, others a teacher or a lawyer's clerk. Old tales tell us that he was by no means steady, and that he was given to poaching and wild company.

5. He married before he was nineteen years of age, and soon after went to London. It is said that he was forced to leave Stratford because he had been concerned in a poaching adventure on the lands of a local landowner named Sir Thomas Lucy. The story goes that he made a living in London by holding horses outside the theatres. Others say that he became a servant of the theatre. This may or may not be true, but it is certain that he soon became prosperous. Seven years after his marriage he was part owner of the Blackfriars Theatre, and a well-known actor who had written many plays.

6. He lived in London, acting and writing and managing theatres, until he was forty-eight years of age, when he returned to Stratford to spend the rest of his days in his

native town. Alas ! those days were few. In 1616 he died at New Place, the site of which is still to be seen. If you have not already done so, you will, I hope, read some of his noble plays. You will then understand what a great poet he was, and what a vast treasure-house of lofty and beautiful thoughts he has left to English-speaking people for all time. It has been said that "to remove any other great poet from our literature would be to lop off a limb from a many-branching tree; to remove Shakespeare would be to take the sun out of heaven."

7. Now Shakespeare, though he is the glory of English literature, is but one of the many poets who made our land, in the days of Queen Elizabeth, "a nest of singing-birds." The "new learning," the Reformation, the warlike times, and the revelation of a world of wonders hitherto unknown, stirred men's minds as they had never been stirred before, and the choicest spirits among them produced prose and poetry of wonderful power and the most exquisite fancy.

8. Edmund Spenser, even more than Shakespeare, reveals the spirit of his age. In his "Faerie Queene," one of the greatest allegories ever written, he describes the struggles of England and the glories of her queen. Sir Philip Sidney, "glorious alike with the pen and the blade," sang delightful songs of country life; and Walter Raleigh composed witty and dainty verses. Christopher Marlowe, "who perished in his prime," wrote plays which influenced even the great Shakespeare himself. "Rare Ben Jonson," and many another also, made the literary age so glorious that perhaps we shall not look upon its like again.

9. Strange to say, these men were not quiet scholars wholly absorbed in the making of books, but men of action as well. Edmund Spenser, for example, fought in Ireland, and received a slice of the forfeited estates of the Earl of Desmond. On his Irish lands he tried to grow corn and to make a profit out of agriculture. Sidney was a tried and able soldier; Walter Raleigh was an explorer and a founder of colonies as well as a literary man; Shakespeare himself was shrewd in his business dealings, and managed to make a respectable fortune while writing his great plays.

20. FRANCIS BACON.

1. Elizabeth's reign also produced many great prose writers, such as Ascham, Lyly, Hooker, and, above and beyond all, Francis Bacon. Though English prose did not attain to its full splendour until the age of a later and much less brilliant queen, the "Essays" of Francis Bacon are worthy to rank with the noblest writings in the English tongue. Let us learn something of this great man, who was certainly the most profound scholar of his day, and whose work has had an abiding influence on later days.

2. Francis Bacon was born in the third year of Elizabeth's reign, and was brought up in studious and courtly surroundings. His father, Sir Nicholas Bacon, was Lord Keeper of the Great Seal of England, and the queen often visited his house in the Strand, and noticed what an old head little Francis had on young shoulders. At thirteen he went to Cambridge, and three years later we hear of him joining

an embassy to France, where he acquired that taste for magnificence and display which made him a needy man all his life, and led to his downfall.

3. When Bacon was eighteen years of age his father died, and he was recalled to England, where he settled down to the study of law at Gray's Inn. Three years later he entered Parliament, and though but a rosy-faced young man he speedily

earned a great reputation for wisdom and knowledge.



FRANCIS BACON, VISCOUNT ST. ALBANS.

4. Quite early in his career he got into debt, and had to borrow from the Jews. The Earl of Essex, the queen's favourite, befriended him, and tried to get him made a law officer of the Crown, but in vain. To console him for his disappointment, Essex gave him the beautiful estate of Twickenham Park. In

after years, when Essex was brought to trial for treason, Bacon drew up the indictment against him, and has been much blamed for doing so. Nevertheless, he set forth the charges against Essex in such a lenient manner that the angry queen cried out, "I see old love is not easily forgotten."

5. Step by step Bacon advanced in the service of the Crown, until in the year 1618, fifteen years after the accession

of James the First, he became Lord High Chancellor of England, and a peer of the realm. Meanwhile he was busily writing the greatest of his works. Twelve times did he copy it and correct it before he gave it to the world. While the book was fresh from the press dark clouds began to gather about its author. He was charged with taking bribes, and the charge proved to be only too true. His love of show continually drained his purse, and he had to replenish it by receiving gifts and fees from suitors.

6. It was a common practice for judges at that time to take bribes, and Bacon was no better and no worse in this respect than his fellow-judges. He had, however, a bitter foe, who spared no pains to bring about his downfall. The House of Commons ordered him to be tried by his peers; and Bacon, now miserably ill, sent to the House of Lords a full confession of his faults, concluding with the despairing cry, "O my lords, spare a broken reed." He was found guilty, sentenced to pay a fine of £40,000, and to be shut up in the Tower. James, however, remitted the fine, and set the fallen chancellor free after four days' imprisonment.

7. The evening of his days was spent in country retirement, in study, experiment, and the composition of his great works. One winter day in the year 1626, as he was driving in his carriage, he bethought himself that cold would probably preserve meat from decay better than salt—an idea that is now put into practice by our cold storage companies. At once he stopped his carriage, went into a roadside cottage, bought a fowl, and with his own hands stuffed it with snow. Feeling chilly and too unwell to go home, he went

to the house of a neighbour, who put him into a damp bed from which he never rose again.

8. Apart from his great literary works, the most important service which Bacon rendered to his own and later times was to show men that knowledge can best be gained by trial or experiment. The old scholars were for ever juggling with forms of words, and thus endeavouring to squeeze new knowledge out of them. Science made little advance until Bacon urged men to question Nature herself by experiment.

9. Thus, suppose a person begins by assuming that heat expands bodies. Instead of trying to show that this must be so because of the very nature and composition of bodies, as the old scholars would have done, a scientific man would now take as many bodies of different materials as he could get, and would actually test them. If he tried a sufficient number and variety of them, and they all expanded when heat was applied, he would be entitled to lay down the general law that "Heat expands bodies."

10. Bacon himself made many scientific discoveries. He knew, for example, that heat was a mode of motion, and that light took time to travel. Science owes a great debt to Bacon, and he may rightly be called the father of modern science. He put men on the right track to make all the wonderful discoveries which, during the nineteenth century, transformed the world. His great powers of mind, however, cannot excuse his wrongdoing, and so he goes down to posterity as—

"The wisest, brightest, meanest of mankind."

21. THE POOR LAW.

1. Here is a copy of a demand for rates, such as a farmer receives and pays each year, probably not without the Briton's privilege of a grumble :—

DEMAND NOTE.

RURAL DISTRICT OF GREENACRE, Year 1907-8.

Parish of Bramthorpe.

Mr. JOHN BULL, Oldfield Farm.

The Overseers of the Poor demand payment of a Poor Rate, made the 19th day of April 1907, to meet expenses which will be incurred before the 31st day of March next, and of the Arrears of former Rates, if any, now due from you.

	Rateable Value.	Amount of Rate.		
	£	£	s.	d.
POOR RATE at 5/1 in the £ on Buildings and other Hereditaments not being Agricultural Land.....	50	12	14	2
At 2/6½ in the £ on Agricultural Land.....	50	6	7	1
Total Poor Rate	100	19	1	3

		Amount in the £.	
		s.	d.
Purposes for which the above-mentioned Poor Rate was made, and amount in the £ levied for each purpose, half the amount being levied on Agricultural Land.	Relief of the Poor and other Expenses of the Guardians.....	1	4
	General Expenses of the Rural District Council (including Highways).....	1	4
	County Contributions (including Education Rate).....	2	1
	Expenses of Burial Board (including reduction of Capital and Interest on Loans).....	0	2½
	Expenses (other than under adoptive Acts) of Parish Council	0	0½
	Expenses of the Overseers.....	0	1
Total.....		5	1

THOMAS JOHNSON, Collector.

2. Now let us see what this demand note can teach us. You notice that it is headed Rural District of Greenacre, and the next line reads Parish of Bramthorpe. You probably

know that in this country every parish, however small, has the right to manage for itself certain of its local affairs. Every county in the country is divided into parishes, and there is no place in the whole land which does not come within the boundaries of one or other of these parishes.

3. In small country parishes a *Parish Meeting* is held every year, and all the ratepayers of the parish are entitled to attend it. This meeting has the right to say whether certain Acts relating to lighting, the provision of baths, libraries, burying grounds, and so forth, shall be put into force. Perhaps its most important duty is to elect the *Overseers of the Poor* and certain other officials.

4. Every parish having a population of more than three hundred has its *Parish Council*, which is a body of fifteen persons elected every three years by the ratepayers of the parish. Sometimes two or more parishes are grouped into one parish council. These councils have larger powers than the parish meeting ; and again, one of their most important duties is to elect the overseers of the poor. In Scotland the parish councils undertake the whole business of relieving the poor.

5. Large parishes of a town-like character, or a group of parishes of the same kind, form what are called *Urban District Councils*. Similarly, a group of country parishes forms a *Rural District Council*. The Rural District of Greenacre, for example, consists of several parishes, one of which is Bramthorpe. In a borough or city the Borough or City Council does the work of the urban district council. Remember that neither borough, nor city, nor district councils, as such, have anything to do with the relief of the poor.

The rural district councillors, however, are also elected to be members of what are called *Boards of Guardians*—that is, the public bodies responsible for the relief of the poor. In urban parishes the boards of guardians are elected every three years by the ratepayers, but the overseers—that is, those who collect the poor rate—are still chosen by the justices of the peace.

6. In order properly to carry out the relief of the poor, a number of parishes are joined together into a district called a “Union,” or a very large parish becomes a “Union” in itself. There are 649 such unions in England and Wales. Every parish in the union must have at least one representative on the body which manages the poor-law affairs of the union—that is, on the board of guardians.

7. The duties of these guardians are to inquire into the claims of those who need relief, and, when necessary, to grant such relief, either indoor or outdoor, to provide and maintain workhouses in which indoor relief is given, to educate pauper children, to care for the sick and lunatic poor, and to see that able-bodied paupers perform the tasks set them while resident in the workhouse.

8. Now in order to do this important work money is necessary. It is raised by what is called a *Poor Rate*. The overseers in every parish place an annual value on each house or piece of land in the parish, and this value is called the rateable value of the land or house. The total annual value placed on all the lands and houses in the parish is the rateable value of the parish. The board of guardians every year estimates the amount of its expenditure, and makes an order that each parish in the union shall pay

a certain proportion of it, according to its total rateable value.

9. Now that we understand how the relief of the poor is provided for in this country, let us see how the system arose. Perhaps you will be surprised to know that its main features were established as the law of the land as far back as the days of Queen Elizabeth. In early times the Church taught that it was part of the religious duty of every Christian man to bestow on God's service the value of one-tenth of his goods. The produce of these tenths or tithes was used for the upkeep of the churches, the clergy, and the poor.

10. There was no law, however, to ensure a proper division of the tithes until the reign of Ethelred the Second, when the Witan directed that one-third was to go to the upkeep of church buildings, one-third to the clergy, and the remaining third to the poor. In the course of time the monasteries managed to secure the greater part of the tithes, and their relief of the poor took the form of charity to all who applied for it. This encouraged large numbers of people to despise work altogether, and to tramp about the country from one monastery to another, molesting wayfarers and committing all sorts of crimes by the way.

11. In Edward the Third's time the evil was severely felt, and laws were passed to check it. Richard the Second only permitted those persons to beg who were provided with a licence, which might be used within certain local limits. In Henry the Eighth's reign, when the number of beggars had largely increased, very severe laws were passed against "vagabonds and beggars." The honest poor were to be provided with licences, as in the days of Richard the Second.

Licensed beggars begging outside their limits, or unlicensed beggars begging at all, were to be twice whipped and set in the pillory, and on repeating the offence were to lose their ears.

12. This Act does not seem to have reduced the number of beggars, and a few years later a still more severe Act was passed, which directed all cities, counties, towns, and parishes to collect alms in order to maintain their own aged and incapable poor, and to set the able-bodied to work. "Valiant and sturdy beggars" were in the last resort to be hanged. At the same time, private persons were forbidden to give alms directly to the poor on pain of being fined ten times the value of the gift. By the same Act churchwardens were to take up a collection for the poor in every parish church on Sundays and holy days, and the clergy were ordered to exhort the people to give freely.

13. For sixty years this was the law of the land. Nevertheless, in spite of all its severity, the law failed, and the number of paupers rapidly increased. In Edward the Sixth's reign two collectors were appointed in every parish to obtain from every person of property a promise of alms for the relief of the poor, to enter such promises in a book, and to collect and expend the money. As we might expect, this system also failed; the kind-hearted gave their money, but the mean and niggardly did not, and there was no law to compel them. Voluntary effort had failed, and the only course left was to make what had formerly been a free act of Christian charity a tax compulsory on all.

14. In 1601, during Elizabeth's reign, the first general Poor Law was passed. The new Act ordered every parish to maintain its own poor out of a rate to be levied on the

landed property of the parish by "overseers of the poor." The rate was to be used to provide work for those who would or could work, and relief for those who could not; poor children were to be trained to some trade; and the idle were to be punished.

15. Now I want you to remember that the two main principles which still underly our modern poor law were established by this Act of Elizabeth. The first is that the incapable and aged are to be relieved, and work is to be provided for the able-bodied poor; and the second is that this must be done by the parishes, each parish providing for its own poor. The poor rate, overseers of the poor, and workhouses all date from this Act of 1601, which remained in force, almost without change, until the days of Charles the Second.

22. THE UNION JACK.

1. On page 128 there is a picture of the Union Jack, the national flag of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. No doubt it is very familiar to you, for you must often have seen it flying over the public buildings of your town. No Briton can help being proud of the Union Jack. It flies over the greatest empire the world has ever known; and wherever it flies, there are to be found at least justice and fair dealing for every man. Nearly one quarter of the whole earth is ruled by the Power which it represents, and nearly one quarter of the population of the earth finds protection beneath its folds.

2. The Union Jack flies alike over the busy homeland,

the wide prairies of the Dominion of Canada, the torrid plains of India, the veld of South Africa, the spreading sheep farms of Australia, and the pastures of New Zealand, as well as over countless isles of the sea. Men have fought to make it glorious, and have died to shield it from dishonour. Every British boy and girl will desire not merely to keep the flag unsullied, but to blazon it still further with the record of noble deeds nobly done.

3. The Union Jack is well worth our careful examination, for it can teach us some important facts of British history. Each of the four nations which compose the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland has its patron saint, who was supposed in olden days to be its special guardian. Thus, the patron saint of England is St. George. An old story tells us that, during the Crusades, St. George with other saints came to the succour of the English. Because of this special sign of favour he was adopted as the English patron saint. Shakespeare makes Henry the Fifth at the siege of Harfleur cry—

“The game’s afoot,
Follow your spirit, and upon the charge
Cry, ‘God for Harry, England, and St. George!’”

The cross of St. George—a red cross on a white ground—was worn as a badge over the armour by every English soldier in the fourteenth and following centuries. It also became the battle-flag of England.

4. Why St. Andrew should have been selected as the patron saint of Scotland is not very clear. Old stories tell us that the saint was crucified on an X-shaped cross, and

that this form of the cross appeared in the sky to a king of the Scots on the evening before a famous battle. He thereupon walked barefoot to the Church of St. Andrew, and vowed to adopt his cross as the national device.

5. The quaint old university town of St. Andrews is said to have been founded by one Regulus, a monk who was made guardian of the relics of St. Andrew. Regulus was warned in a dream that he must carry the relics to a distant land for safety. He went on board ship, and sailed on and on until his bark was driven ashore on the coast of Fife-shire. Where he landed, he built a church and dedicated it to St. Andrew. The flag of St. Andrew—the Scottish national flag—is a white **X**-shaped cross on a blue ground.

6. The patron saint of Wales is St. David, whom some of the old writers who tell us of his preaching and miracles consider to have been the uncle of the famous King Arthur. The story of St. Patrick, the special guardian of Ireland, is well known. He, at least, is well known to history, and his glory is that he introduced Christianity into Ireland. The Irish took as their flag a red **X**-shaped cross on a white ground. Wales is not represented on the Union Jack, and this is considered by many patriotic Welshmen as a slur upon their country.

7. Now the Union Jack, as we have it to-day, consists of the three crosses of England, Scotland, and Ireland, placed one above the other. Examine the Union Jack carefully, and you will see first and foremost the red cross of St. George, beneath it the white cross of St. Andrew, and lying on this cross the red cross of St. Patrick.

8. I want you to notice that the red cross of St. Patrick

is narrower than the white cross of St. Andrew, and that it is not placed in the middle of the white cross. Had the Irish cross been of the same width as the Scottish cross, the latter would have been covered up. Had the narrower Irish cross been placed in the middle of the Scottish cross, the white of St. Andrew would have been a mere edging to the red of St. Patrick. In either case, Scotsmen would have been offended at the slight placed upon them, so the heralds who designed the Union Jack made the cross of St. Patrick narrower than the cross of St. Andrew, and then broke the continuity of its arms, so that in each quarter of the flag the crosses of Ireland and Scotland might be clearly distinguished from each other.

9. Now, why is this flag called the Union Jack? Most people believe that it was so called from the word *Jacques*, the French for James. This James was the successor to Queen Elizabeth, who, as you know, was never married and had no children. When she died, the recognized heir to the English throne was the great-grandson of Margaret, eldest daughter of Henry the Seventh. According to Henry the Eighth's will the heir was Lord Beauchamp, a descendant of the Duchess of Suffolk, Henry's favourite sister. This person, however, was impossible, and Elizabeth on her death-bed named James as her successor.

10. James was, you will remember, the son of Mary Queen of Scots and Darnley. When Elizabeth died he had been King of Scotland for twenty-five years. He was crowned King of England in 1603, and thus Scotland and England came under the rule of one king. James took the title, "King of Great Britain," and was



The Royal Standard and the Union Jack.

1. The flag of St. George. 2. Royal Standard. 3. The White Ensign. 4. The Blue Ensign. 5. The Union Jack. 6. The Red Ensign. 7. The Admiralty Flag. 8. The first Union Jack, 1606 (combination of crosses of St. George and St. Andrew). 9. The second Union Jack (with cross of St. Patrick added).

amused at his own wit in pointing out that Albion, the old name for the island of Britain, really meant *All-be-one* !

11. When the crowns were united under the name of Great Britain a new flag was necessary. It was made by combining the flag of St. George with that of St. Andrew. By royal order, captains of ships were commanded to fly the new flag at the maintop, and either the Red Cross or the White Cross at the foretop, according as the ship belonged to England or Scotland. This royal order was sadly needed, for there was much dissatisfaction in Scotland with the new Union flag, in which "the Scottish cross was twice divided, and the English cross was drawn through the Scottish cross."

12. Despite dissatisfaction on both sides of the Border, the union of England and Scotland under one king was a very good thing for both nations. It enabled Englishmen and Scotsmen to know each other better, and thus did something to lessen the old hatred between the two peoples. No longer had the two countries to waste their money and strength in keeping up armies to fight against each other. No longer was Scotland the ally of France, ever ready to make England's embarrassment Scotland's opportunity.

13. James boasted that he governed Scotland with his pen. This was true, but Scotland was not the orderly, peaceful land which these words would seem to imply. Blood feuds took place in the streets of Edinburgh as well as in lonely Border dales. Trials before judges were frequently little better than a mockery, especially when the parties were powerful and could bring armed men to

overawe the judges. On one occasion a judge was actually kidnapped and kept out of sight to prevent him from giving a decision against a certain suitor.

14. The great nobles were lawless and very quarrelsome, and James had hard work to keep them in order. With the might of England behind him he was able to overcome the nobles, and give his land that peace and even-handed justice which it lacked. The real union with Scotland—the union of the two Parliaments—did not take place until one hundred and four years later.

15. Ninety-two years after this the cross of St. Patrick was added to the united crosses of St. George and St. Andrew. In the year 1798 the Irish Parliament was abolished, the British Parliament became the sole law-making body for the three kingdoms, and the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland came into being. The cross of St. Patrick was added to the British flag, and thus the Union Jack, the best known and most effective flag in the world, became the sign and symbol of our national unity and greatness.



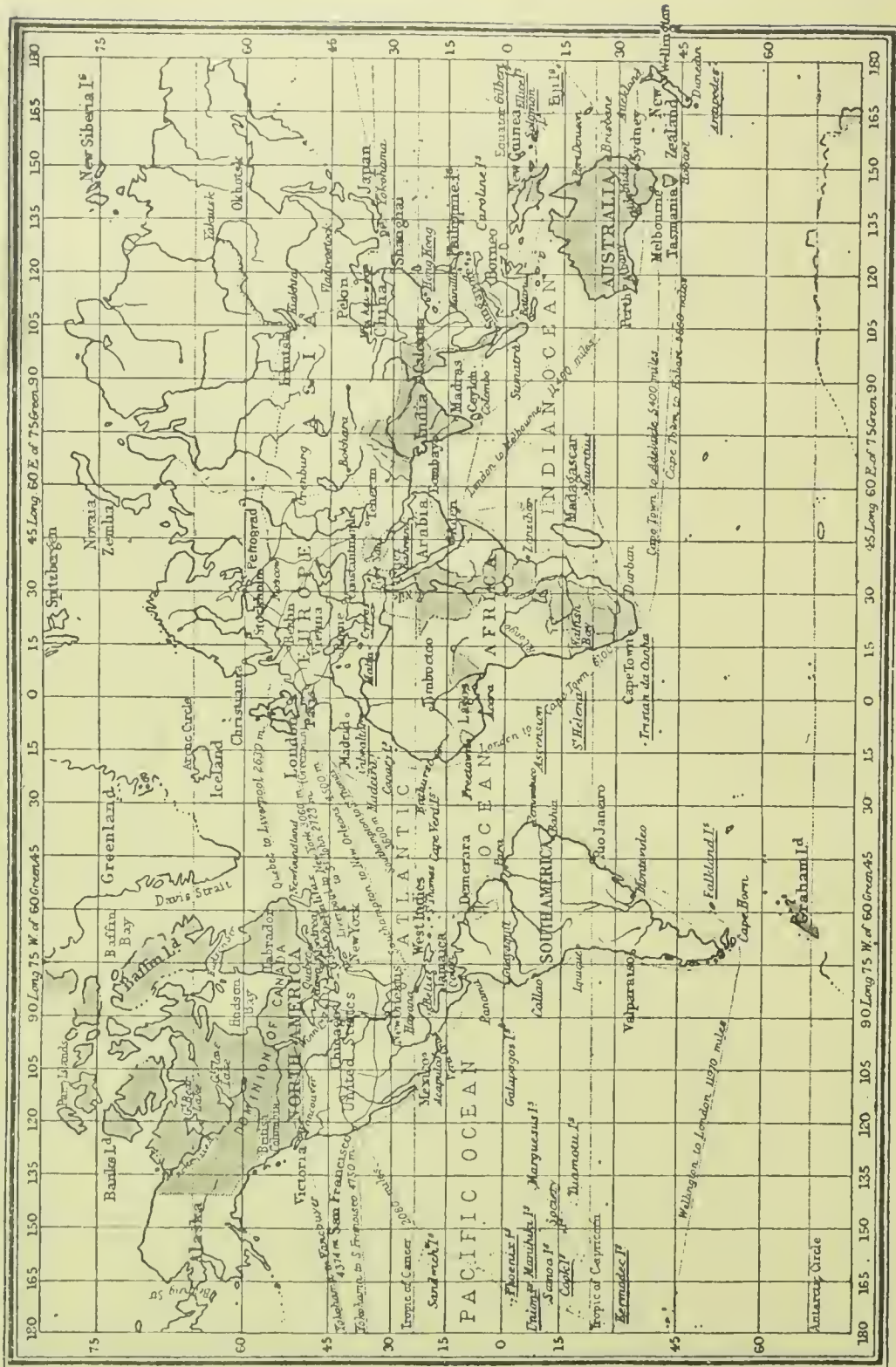
23. THE STORY OF VIRGINIA.—I.

1. Look at the map on page 132. Both in the Old and in the New World you will see wide stretches of country darkly shaded. These shaded patches on the map represent the lands over which the Union Jack flies and our King rules. This great combination of scattered states is known as the British Empire. You will find parts of the British Empire in every ocean, on every continent, in every clime,

from the icy polar wastes to the sweltering plains of the tropics. The British dominion is a "world empire." Rome in the height of her glory had no such widespread possessions as the British race holds to-day.

2. Now if you examine the map carefully you will notice that the British Empire can be divided into two great parts—the lands within the temperate zones, and the lands within the torrid zone. By far the more important are the possessions in the temperate zones. In these parts of the earth white men can live comfortably and work well, for the heat is not so great as to sap their energy, and the cold is not so intense as to numb their powers. The British Empire lies largely within the temperate zones, and is, therefore, in the main, a *white man's country*. The great colonies which Britain has founded beyond the seas lie, for the most part, in the temperate zones.

3. In the north temperate zone, which has been the home of all the great empires of the world, we find the British Isles and the vast Dominion of Canada. Inhabiting Canada is one of the Five Nations of Greater Britain, a white race with a great future before it. In the south temperate zone we find wide lands fit for colonization at the southern end of Africa. Here we find the second of the Five Nations, a race of Europeans dwelling amidst a dense population of natives. The great island continent of Australia lies mainly within the same zone. Here is the third of the Five Nations, inhabiting as yet only the fringes of the continent. The fourth of the Five Nations occupies the island group of New Zealand, which is wholly in the south temperate zone, and might well be called the British Isles of



MAP OF BRITISH EMPIRE.

the Southern Seas. The fifth of the Five Nations inhabits the Mother Country.

4. Now the story of how these great colonies arose ought to be as fascinating to young Britons as a fairy tale. In this lesson we shall deal with the foundation of our first colony on the mainland of America. The story is full of the elements of romance—ignorant blundering, deplorable disaster, unspeakable suffering, undaunted courage, and finally, glorious success. The beginning of the colony was the work of Sir Walter Raleigh, the most brilliant, all-round man of his age—explorer, soldier, sailor, poet, prose-writer, and true-hearted gentleman, “a spirit without spot,” as Shelley finely calls him. The headsman’s axe had severed his head from his shoulders before the success of his experiment was quite assured, but he lived long enough to know that his colony was thriving, and that its population numbered four thousand men and women.

5. Four years after Drake had circumnavigated the globe, and one year after Sir Humphrey Gilbert had perished at sea while returning from Newfoundland, Raleigh obtained permission from Queen Elizabeth to make a settlement on any part of the coast of America not already occupied by a Christian power. He sent forth a fleet which explored the seaboard of the New World from Florida to Newfoundland. After landing on Roanoke Island, within the lagoons of what is now North Carolina, the adventurers returned home with a glowing description of the “good land” that they had discovered. Raleigh at once took steps to colonize it, and called it Virginia in honour of the Virgin Queen.

6. Accordingly, in the year 1585, he sent out Sir Richard

Grenville with one hundred and eight men, and on Roanoke Island a little colony was established. Ralph Lane was left in charge of the party, and Grenville sailed for England, hoping for the best. Unhappily, the wrong kind of men had been sent out. For the most part they were soft-handed gentlemen, quite unsuited to the rough work of pioneering in the wilderness. Before long quarrels broke out, food ran short, and the colonists were on the verge of starvation.

7. In the next year Drake touched at Roanoke after his attack on Cartagena, and found the colonists in great straits. Seeing what a helpless, hopeless crew they were, he carried all of them but fifteen back with him to England. The colony had thus proved a failure, but the experiment was not without results. The colonists brought back with them the potato, and some dried tobacco leaves which the Indians had taught them to smoke.

8. Raleigh learnt several useful lessons from his failure. First, he learnt that his colony must be sufficiently strong to defend itself against both Spaniards and Red men; secondly, that his colonists must be used to hardship, able to handle axe and plough, and make a stern fight with Nature; and thirdly, that if the colony was to be the permanent home of settlers, their families must go with them. Laying these lessons to heart, he sent out in 1587 a second band of both men and women and children. Their leader was John White, one of Ralph Lane's company, and he was given a charter and instructions to build a town to be called Raleigh, somewhere on the shores of Chesapeake Bay.

9. In due course the new expedition landed on Roanoke Island, only to discover that the fifteen men left behind had disappeared. Except the melons which they had planted, there was no trace of them whatever. This was a bad omen, but the newcomers kept up their hearts and began the work of settlement. On August 18, 1587, there was great rejoicing amongst the settlers. A little girl, the granddaughter of Governor White, was born, and was christened Virginia. She was the first child born of English parents in America.

10. With Roanoke Island as their headquarters, the colonists now began to explore the mainland in order to discover a better site for their settlement. Roanoke and the other low islands off the coast were unhealthy, and many of the colonists were stricken with fever. In spite of sickness, fights with Indians, and disappointments of various kinds, the little company struggled on for three years, and then White was obliged to sail for England to procure supplies, such as weapons, gunpowder, instruments, and clothes. By this time the colony was reduced to ninety men, seventeen women, and eleven children.

24. THE STORY OF VIRGINIA.—II.

1. Three years elapsed before White returned. A terrible home-coming awaited him. "To his dismay he found the place deserted; all were gone—men, women, and children. The cottages were empty; grass was growing over the floors, creepers were tearing down the walls: there was not

a soul left. What had become of the unfortunate colonists was never discovered. Probably they resolved on moving to some more healthy place; perhaps on the way they were attacked by Indians, and all killed—men, women, and children; not one left to tell the tale.”

2. Raleigh was terribly disappointed at this second failure. He could do no more, so in 1589 he made over all his rights to a company of merchants, who did not attempt to found a new colony on the ruins of the old. Thus the sixteenth century came to an end, and England had no colony of any kind in all America. Better fortune, however, arrived with the new century. A “sea-dog” named Bartholomew Gosnold, a man of note in his day, but little remembered now, determined to take up the work.

3. His first voyage was remarkable, because, instead of following the old route to America by way of the Canary Islands, the West Indies, and Florida, he boldly sailed due west, and thus shortened the ocean journey considerably. He followed the shore southward till he came to Cuttyhunk Island, at the entrance to Buzzard’s Bay, on the coast of what is now Massachusetts. Here he landed near the spot where a lighthouse now stands, and prepared to establish his colony. He built a house, and began trading with the Indians; but when he proposed to return to England, not a man of his company would remain behind, and the whole band came home again.

4. Gosnold was not disheartened by this failure, but was more eager than ever to found a colony. In 1606 King James the First was prevailed upon to create two companies to settle in Virginia. Funds were collected, settlers were

recruited, stores were collected, three ships were fitted out, and in December 1606 one hundred and forty-three colonists belonging to the first or London company set sail. They were followed the next year by a party sent out by the second or Plymouth company.

5. The three ships of the London company reached the coast in the spring of 1607, and entering Chesapeake Bay were driven by a storm into the mouth of a great river, which they called the James in honour of their king. Thirty miles from its mouth they landed on a little peninsula, and established a settlement, which they called Jamestown. Nothing of it now remains but the ruined tower of a church. The river has washed away most of the land on which the settlement stood, and the site is now an island.

6. The settlers landed in the month of April, when the weather was warm and the country rich with verdure. They threw up rude fortifications, and within them built huts of branches and sails. They were delighted with their new abode, though they soon discovered that it was fever-stricken. Food soon ran short, the Indians attacked them, and before September half of the party had died of fever. It was now clear that the old mistake had been made in the choice of colonists. Instead of farmers and craftsmen, "gentlemen" and soldiers who despised rough manual labour had been sent out.

7. The colony would have perished miserably but for the courage and energy of a remarkable man named John Smith. He was a soldier and explorer, with almost as many adventures as Ulysses. On one occasion he was captured

by the Indian chief Powhattan, and was sentenced to have his brains beaten out. At the moment, however, when the fatal club was about to descend, Pocahontas, the chief's daughter, flung her arms round the victim's neck, and swore that unless his life was spared she would perish too. This noble girl afterwards married an Englishman, and lived with him in this country. Her tomb may still be seen in St. George's Church, Gravesend.

8. Smith took command of the party, set the men to build huts, persuaded the Indians to give them food, and thus saved the colony from destruction. He was the first man to explore the bays and rivers of Virginia, and for two long, weary years was the heart and soul of the whole enterprise. Considering the worthless men he had to deal with, and the hardships and difficulties that beset him, Smith's success was remarkable.

9. The condition of the colony, however, was still bad when a little fleet arrived with five hundred new settlers. They were the offscourings of the London streets and released prisoners from the jails, the very worst type of men with which to found a colony. Still, Smith might have made something of them had he not been forced by a wound to return to England. After his departure sickness and famine did their work, and at the end of six months only sixty of the five hundred newcomers remained alive.

10. The survivors determined to shake off the dust of America ; but when they were on board ship sailing down the river for the homeward voyage they were met by Lord Delaware with a small fleet full of new colonists and all necessary supplies. Lord Delaware came out as governor of

Virginia, and under him the colony at last firmly rooted itself in the New World. Before long the settlers began to send to England for wives. The passage-money of each bride was 150 lbs. of tobacco.

11. I have told you the eventful story of the foundation of Virginia thus fully in order to impress upon you the trials and difficulties, the mistakes and disappointments, which had to be endured before the British race was firmly established on the soil of the New World. In the next lesson I shall tell you how America received a totally different type of colonist. The earlier settlers had been adventurers or broken-down and desperate men; the later settlers were emigrants for conscience' sake—men and women of wonderful courage and endurance, loving liberty better than life, and regarding life as the stern school of eternity.

25. THE PILGRIM FATHERS.

1. To-day we will visit Hampton Court Palace, which stands on the north bank of the Thames, fifteen miles southwest of London. It is a grand building of warm, red brick, and it gives you an excellent idea on a large scale of the kind of country house which was built in all parts of England during the reigns of Henry the Eighth and Elizabeth. The palace is open to the public, and at holiday times it is a favourite resort of Londoners, who delight in the picture gallery, the beautiful gardens, the maze, and the extensive park with its noble old trees. The palace was built by Cardinal Wolsey in 1526, and was presented by him to

Henry the Eighth, whose son, afterwards Edward the Sixth, was born in it.

2. Now why have I brought you to see this famous old place? Because in Hampton Court Palace an event took place which forms an epoch in the history of our empire-building. You know that under Elizabeth the Church of England became Protestant. The old form of worship was largely changed, and some of the old doctrines were thrown aside. Many persons, however, did not think that the Church had become Protestant enough. They wanted to make the worship still more simple, and to *purify* the Church still further. These persons were known as Puritans.

3. When James the Sixth of Scotland became James the First of England, the Puritans hoped that the new king would remodel the Church according to their ideas. You already know that James had been brought up in Scotland, where the Church had been much more thoroughly reformed than in England. Bishops had been abolished north of the Border, and the rulers of the Church were now the *presbyters*—that is, the ministers and the “elders,” or chosen men of each congregation. For this reason the government of the Scottish Church is known as Presbyterian.

4. Now James had declared the Presbyterian Church to be “the purest in the world,” though he had attacked the Puritans in Scotland. The English Puritans, however, believed that he would favour them. They met him on his way to London, and asked him to make certain changes in the Prayer Book and in the form of public worship, and from their reception they fully expected that he would do so.

5. A few months later James summoned a conference of

bishops and leading Puritans to meet at Hampton Court in order to discuss Church questions. The king presided in person, but very soon the Puritans discovered that James had left all his Puritanism behind him in Scotland. He took the part of the bishops, and spoke very slightly of Presbyterianism. "No bishop, no king," was his cry. The whole conference was a farce, in which the king was the chief actor. At last he shuffled out of the room, declaring



ENTRANCE GATE, HAMPTON COURT.

that he would make the Puritans worship according to the forms of the Church, or he would "harry them out of the land altogether."

6. The king kept his word. Harsh laws were made to prevent the Puritans from holding meetings for worship, and numbers of them were fined and imprisoned for attending their services. They soon saw that there was no peace for them in England. Some of them fled to Holland, where they were free to worship in their own way. These exiles

settled at Leyden as an English colony. They were hard-working, well-behaved people, and soon won the respect of the Dutch. Before long they had built their own meeting-house and a number of cottages for their poorer members.

7. For eleven years they lived together in great harmony, and then they were faced with an important question. Their children had grown up, and they had now to decide whether or not the new generation was to forget its native land and its native speech and to become Dutch. England had treated the exiles cruelly, but some of them still loved her, and were ready to suffer great hardships rather than let their children grow up as foreigners.

8. Now, the only land in which the Puritans could worship freely and at the same time live as Englishmen was America, the vast new continent beyond the Atlantic Ocean. A colony had already been founded in what was known as Virginia, so named after Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen. To America, then, the Puritans turned their attention, and after long delays they formed a company, and obtained permission to settle in New England, which lay to the north of the colony already founded.

9. The *Speedwell*, a little vessel of sixty tons, was bought in Holland, and a larger ship of one hundred and eighty tons, known as the *Mayflower*, was purchased in London. On July 22, 1620, the *Speedwell*, laden with the pilgrims, left Delft Haven, bound for Southampton. On page 145 you will see a picture of the scene. At Southampton some friends from London joined them in the *Mayflower*. The expedition set sail for America on August 5 ; but before

long the *Speedwell* proved unseaworthy, and the two ships had to put back to Plymouth, where twenty faint-hearted persons left the company.

10. On September 6 the *Mayflower*, with one hundred passengers, set sail once more. The weather was very rough, and for nine long weeks the little ship battled against the Atlantic gales. At length the sandy shores of Cape Cod came in sight. The land of promise lay to the south of this cape, but in attempting to reach it the *Mayflower* had to fight against head winds, and could make no progress. She therefore took shelter in a harbour off Cape Cod Bay.

11. On November 21 a meeting was held in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, and the pilgrims agreed to go no farther, but to settle down on the shores of Cape Cod Bay. For five weeks Captain Standish and a crew explored the coast, and at last entered the harbour of Plymouth, which John Smith had previously discovered and noted on his map. A few days later the *Mayflower* was safely moored in the harbour, and on December 21 the pilgrims stepped ashore.

12. The coast was bleak and barren, and the weather very cold. The shore was so shallow that they had to wade from their boats through ice-cold water. At once the work of founding a settlement was begun. It was called Plymouth, after the name of the last English town which the pilgrims had seen. If you were to visit the American Plymouth, you would be shown with great pride the very granite boulder on which the pilgrims first set foot in America.

13. I need not tell you of the hardships which these

noble men and women suffered. Storm and tempest, hunger and cold, sickness and death raged among them, but they never lost heart. Before spring fifty-one of the colonists had died. Even in the third year of the settlement the pilgrims had to face starvation. "They knew not at night where to have a bit in the morning." At one time each family had to subsist on a small measure of corn, which, when distributed to the members of the household, gave only a few grains a day to each ! Three bitter years passed, and then better days dawned. New batches of pilgrims began to join them. Between the years 1629 and 1640 no less than twenty thousand Puritans left England for America.

14. The men and women who left England to pioneer in the wilderness were God-fearing and pious, strong and enduring, staid and serious in all their thoughts, words, and works. They loved the land that bore them, but they loved their own freedom better, and they gave up home and kindred for it. Every year the number of colonists in New England, Virginia, and other colonies on the Atlantic coast increased, until there was a strong and prosperous white nation along the seaboard of North America.

15. One hundred and fifty-five years after the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers a great struggle for freedom took place. The British Parliament tried to tax the Americans without allowing them to have representatives in the House of Commons. The colonists took up arms in defence of their rights ; the British were defeated, and the Americans set up the great United States of America.



The Pilgrim Fathers leaving Delft Haven.

(From the picture by C. W. Cope, R.A.)



26. THE TORN PAGES.

1. To-day we will pay a visit to the Library of the House of Commons. We find that it is a handsome room splendidly stocked with books ; but we have not come to refer to them. The object of our quest is a journal of the House of Commons for the year 1621. It lies open on a glass-topped table, and if we look closely at it we shall notice that some pages have been violently torn from the book. The story of these torn pages introduces us to that great conflict between King and Commons which led finally to the ruin of the House of Stuart.

2. In order to understand how these pages came to be torn out, we must study the Parliamentary history of the reign of James the First, the first Stuart king. He had not been long on the throne before he put forward two very foolish claims, by which he hoped to override the nation's will and make himself even more absolute than the Tudors had been.

3. The first of these claims was what is called "the divine right of kings." Monarchs, said James, were appointed by Almighty God, and were responsible to Him alone, and therefore it was sinful of their subjects to oppose them whatever they did. Kings had, according to James, a divine right to do wrong. He had already advanced this doctrine in a book which he had written and issued in Scotland; and though there was no lack of time-serving courtiers and bishops in England to echo and enforce it, the great mass of Englishmen thought it utterly absurd, and never could be persuaded to agree with it.

4. The second claim arose out of the first. As the king was only responsible to God, the laws of the land were merely grants which the king had made to his people, and therefore the present holder of the office might withdraw or suspend them at his pleasure. Any law to which the king agreed was only a statement of his present intentions; it was not binding upon him for the future, and his people had no right to force him to observe it.

5. When Englishmen began to see that the king was really acting up to this strange doctrine, they saw clearly that unless they opposed him all the freedom which they believed to be their birthright would soon be nothing but a vain shadow, and that they would simply be slaves of the Crown. James was obstinate and the people were determined, and a conflict soon took place. In the reign of Charles the First, who inherited his father's beliefs, this conflict grew into a terrible civil war, in the course of which the king lost his head.

6. James knew that the Tudors had been despots, but he

did not perceive that they had been very wary in their despotism. Henry the Eighth had made much of his Parliaments, and had persuaded rather than forced them to do his bidding. Elizabeth was also a despot, but she was extremely popular with the nation; and though Parliament grew restive towards the end of her reign, Englishmen really believed her when she said that "as she had ever held her people's good most dear, so the last day of her life should witness it." But James insisted on being openly recognized as the absolute master of the nation. He could not read the signs of the times, nor did he understand the temper of the people: the day of absolute kings had gone by for ever.

7. James had come from a land in which Parliament was of little or no account. Four years after his accession to the English throne he could truthfully say, "Here I sit and govern Scotland with my pen; I write, and it is done, and by a clerk of the council I govern Scotland now." He soon found to his cost that England was not to be so ruled. The English Parliament was beginning to understand its strength. "The slavish Parliament of Henry the Eighth grew into the murmuring Parliament of Queen Elizabeth, the mutinous Parliament of James the First, and the rebellious Parliament of Charles the First."

8. Even on his way to London James had broken the law: he had hanged an offender without a trial. In summoning his first Parliament he went a step further, and aimed a blow at the independence of the House of Commons by telling the people the kind of men they should elect. He also ordered the names of the new members to

be sent to his judges, who were to decide whether or not they were properly elected. Now, the House of Commons has always been most jealous of its right to judge for itself in all matters connected with Parliamentary elections. You can easily imagine how angry the newly-elected members would be at this attempt to rob them of their rights and privileges.

9. Before long James issued a number of proclamations which not only altered the law, but gave sole rights to certain persons to make and sell various articles. Of course, the lucky people who obtained these sole rights could charge what they pleased for their goods, and the public at large could only grumble and pay. Parliament complained bitterly of the king's action in granting these "monopolies."

10. The question of taxation, too, was a sore point between the king and the Parliament. Almost the only hold which Parliament had over the king was the right of refusing to grant him money unless he did away with the grievances of which it complained. You must always remember that British liberty has been won by "the power of the purse."

11. Parliament knew that if the king could get supplies without its consent, he would be able to govern just as he pleased. James knew this equally well, and he soon set about discovering a method of getting money without asking Parliament for it. Parliament in its first session had granted the king the customs for life—that is, he was to have tunnage and poundage, which means a fixed grant of so much on every "tun" of wine, and one shilling on every pound sterling value in the case of certain other imported

goods. Without the slightest reference to Parliament, James raised the duties on imported goods, and made such things as tobacco and currants, which had never before been taxed, pay a duty.

12. John Bate refused to pay, but when his case came to court, the judges, deciding the question according to strict law, gave judgment for the Crown. The case being decided, James at once increased his income from tunnage and poundage by £70,000 a year. The Commons loudly objected, and thinking men all over the land began to ask themselves how the nation was to control the king if it lost the sole power of granting the taxes.

27. KING AND PARLIAMENT.

1. In the year 1610 Parliament made a great effort to settle its quarrel with the king. It was willing to pay him a large sum of money if he would give up what he called his right to increase the duties on imported goods, together with certain ancient dues which had come down to him from feudal times. The whole plan, however, fell through, and Parliament was dissolved.

2. A second Parliament was summoned in 1614, but it was just as stubborn as the first. When James asked for money, Parliament refused it, unless he agreed to give up the powers of taxation which were in dispute during the former Parliament. Not a single new law did this Parliament hatch out, and therefore it received the name of the "Addled Parliament." After it was dissolved

James did without a Parliament for seven years. Trade was good, and the duties on imported goods gave him sufficient money for a time of peace.

3. In 1618, however, a war broke out with Germany, and James was obliged to ask the nation for the money with which to carry it on. The war came about in this way. James had married his daughter Elizabeth to Frederick, Count Palatine of the Rhine, the head of the Protestant party in Germany. The Bohemians drove out their Catholic emperor, and offered the crown to Frederick, who accepted it against his father-in-law's advice. The Catholic powers saw clearly that if Frederick were to hold both his large district on the Rhine and Bohemia as well, the Protestants would become very powerful in Europe. They therefore took up arms against him. The troops of the Emperor swept into the Palatinate, and their allies marched into Bohemia and forced Frederick to battle before the walls of Prague. He was hopelessly defeated, and had to fly for his life. Thus began the long struggle known as the "Thirty Years' War."

4. Before two years were over Elizabeth, her husband, and her children were homeless wanderers. James, who was now under the thumb of a clever Spanish ambassador, was eager to marry his son Charles to the King of Spain's daughter, and thus secure the support of that powerful kingdom. He had already sacrificed Raleigh in the hope of winning the King of Spain's consent, and now he was ready to sacrifice his son-in-law if need be. He professed a great love for peace, and wished to remain neutral; but Parliament and people were eager for a war with the old enemy, and were keenly anxious to help the Protestant

prince against the Catholic monarch. The proposed Spanish marriage was most unpopular, and with the country in this frame of mind the new Parliament assembled.

5. Parliament gave the king a grant of £160,000, instead of the half million which he demanded, and then proceeded to attack the monopolies and to order the trial of the king's ministers for mismanaging the affairs of the State. Next, it asked that the old laws against Catholics should be more strictly enforced, and that Prince Charles should forthwith be married to a Protestant princess. James was very angry, and told the House of Commons plainly that it had no right to meddle with such matters at all. Further, he said very bluntly that any privileges which they thought they possessed were simply derived from his "grace and favour," and were not real rights at all.

6. The Commons now determined to make a great stand against the king. They passed a resolution to the effect that the liberties and privileges of Parliament are "the ancient and undoubted birthright and inheritance of the subjects of England," and that Parliament has a right to discuss every matter concerning the State, the defence of the realm, the Church of England, the making of laws and the redress of grievances, and to give advice to the king. You now see that the Commons of 1621 were making the same fight as their forefathers. They were the successors to the barons and clergy of 1215, who forced Magna Charta from King John, and to those of 1258, who took the government out of the hands of Henry the Third.

7. The protest was entered in the journals of the House, and it is still written on the minds and hearts of all

Britons. When James returned from Newmarket and heard the news his anger knew no bounds. He sent for the journals of the House, and with his own royal hand tore out the offending pages ! As you look upon the mutilated book in the House of Commons library, you ought to be grateful for the stout hearts and strong wills of the men who made this bold stand for the rights which we enjoy to-day.

8. A few words will suffice to sum up the remainder of James's inglorious reign. He dissolved Parliament, and tried once more to rule as an absolute king. Three years later, to the great joy of the nation, the Spanish marriage was broken off, and James, in spite of all his boasted statecraft, was forced to declare war against Spain. Parliament met, and voted liberal supplies for an army to be sent to Germany, and James, now old and feeble, was obliged to consult it as to how the war should be conducted. This was a great triumph for Parliament, for it had now gained the control of foreign affairs, which were formerly managed solely by the king.

28. THE STORY OF IRELAND.—I.

1. Come with me to Dublin, the capital of Ireland. We leave Euston Station, London, by the Irish mail, and travelling at express speed reach Holyhead, two hundred and sixty-four miles north-west of London. The mail-boat is waiting for us. We step aboard, and in less than three hours we have crossed the sixty-four miles of sea between Holyhead and Kingstown. A train hurries us

up to Westland Row, and in about nine hours after leaving London we are walking the streets of Dublin.

2. We cannot spare the time for general sight-seeing, though Dublin has much to show us that is well worth our careful attention. We make our way at once to Cork Hill, and see before us the main entrance to Dublin Castle, the official residence of the viceroy and the headquarters of the Irish Government. The castle itself is by no means impressive; it is a gloomy building, and not much like a castle at all. Nevertheless, it is a historic structure, and will serve admirably as a starting-point for our lessons on Ireland.



DUBLIN CASTLE.

3. On the south side of the Upper Castle Yard are the state apartments, which include the ballroom, known as St. Patrick's Hall. On the ceiling are three painted panels, one of which represents Henry the Second receiving the homage of the Irish chiefs at Waterford in 1171. This incident took place before the building of the castle, which was not erected until the beginning of the thirteenth century. I told you in Book III. how, during one of the endless civil wars with which the island was cursed, Dermot MacMurrough, King of Leinster, was driven from his

dominions. He applied to Henry the Second for help to regain his throne, and obtained leave to enlist English knights for the purpose. The chief of these knights was Richard de Clare, afterwards known as Strongbow. He lies buried somewhere within Christ Church Cathedral in Castle Street.

4. You already know something of the story of Strongbow. You remember how he landed near Waterford in the year 1170, and with fifteen hundred well-armed and skilful soldiers captured the city after a stubborn resistance. While the dead lay in heaps in the streets, he married Dermot's daughter Eva. After his father-in-law's death, Strongbow succeeded him as King of Leinster, and seemed in a fair way to become master of all Ireland. Naturally Henry was very unwilling that his vassal should become king of the sister island. So in 1171 he crossed over with a large army, and the Irish chiefs yielded without a blow.

5. At this time Ireland had long since fallen from its high estate, and was no longer the "isle of saints," as it had been from the fifth to the eighth century. All that St. Patrick and his successors had done to civilize the island had disappeared during the long and desperate struggle with the Danes, who had established themselves in the coast towns on the Irish Sea, and waged constant war with the Celtic tribes further inland. Practically the only commerce between England and Ireland was in slaves. In the twelfth century Ireland was full of Englishmen who had been kidnapped and sold into slavery. This alone was sufficient to make Henry eager for the conquest of Ireland.

6. Recalled to England by the revolt of his eldest son,

Henry was unable to subdue the land. Immediately after his army withdrew, trouble broke out afresh. The knights to whom he had given lands on a sort of feudal system plundered the native Irish right and left, and cared for nothing but extending their estates. This caused the Irish chiefs to combine against the foreigners, and raids and counter-raids were constant. In the turmoil Strongbow was made governor, but he could not pacify the country, nor could his successor. The fact was that the English knights did not desire peace, for as long as the fighting continued they were able to reap the spoils of war.

7. Henry had intended Ireland to be the kingdom of his youngest and best-beloved son John, and when that prince was nineteen years of age he was sent across the Channel to win his kingdom. Many of the Irish chiefs were eager to accept him as their lord, but his rude behaviour drove them to arms, and they fell upon his army and nearly destroyed it. When Henry learnt of his son's defeat he recalled him at once. Until he came to the throne John was only Lord of Ireland in name, and because of this he was nicknamed "Lackland."

8. As you already know, John became King of England in succession to his brother Richard, and in 1210 he once more crossed over to Ireland with a huge army. The land was then in the condition of England during Stephen's reign, but John soon reduced it to something like order. About one-third of the country was placed under English rule, and was known as the English Pale. This part of Ireland John divided into counties. He also made laws and set up courts, not for the native Irish but for the English in Ireland. John

remained about two months in the country, and on the departure of his army the old disorder and misrule broke out once more.

9. Outside the Pale the Irish were almost untouched by English influence. They still lived in their old tribal state under a *ri* or chief of the tribe, according to unwritten laws which had come down to them from the earliest times. Their houses were built of wattles or of hewn timber; and every tribesman, whether freeman or serf, had the right of building a dwelling on the common land. Oats, wheat, barley, flax, wool, madder, onions, and parsnips were grown, and cattle formed their chief wealth. In winter the scanty population lived on the plains; in summer they drove their cattle to the mountains or to the sea-coast.

10. A loose woollen shirt covered by a light tunic formed the dress of both sexes, and usually a shawl fastened by a brooch hung from the left shoulder. Both men and women delighted in wearing brooches, bracelets, rings, collars, and clasps of gold. In warfare the mounted soldiers or galloglasses wore mail and an iron helmet, and their arms were the sword, battle-axe, and shield. The kerns or light-armed men fought in their yellow linen tunics, and carried a short sword, a small bow, and a light spear.

11. By the beginning of the fourteenth century the English power in Ireland had sunk to a very low ebb. After the battle of Bannockburn the native Irish invited Edward, Robert Bruce's brother, to come over to be their king. He invaded the country, and for two years wasted the land. At length, "after eighteen successive victories," he was defeated and slain with eleven thousand of his followers. After this,

famine and plague visited the unhappy land, and the English in Ireland grew weaker and weaker, while the Irish chieftains grew stronger and stronger.

12. When Edward the Third came to the throne the only part of the land which remained English was the district around Dublin. At this time there were two classes of Englishmen in Ireland—the old English and the new English. The old English were chiefly the descendants of the Norman knights and soldiers who had come over with Strongbow. Though they were English by blood, they were Irish by birth.

13. The new English, on the other hand, had been born in England, and had gone to Ireland merely in the hope of making their fortunes. They knew nothing of Ireland, and they had never done anything for the country, yet the king gave them all the best posts in the Government. The old English were, of course, very angry at being slighted in this way. Many of them turned against the Government altogether, and joined the Irish. They married Irish women, spoke the Irish language, dressed in the Irish way, and indeed became “more Irish than the Irish themselves.” The great barons had their strong castles and their bands of soldiers, and ruled like little kings. They cared nothing for the English Government, and Edward the Third saw that his power was fading away. Three times he tried to overcome the Irish nobles, and three times he failed.

14. In 1361 Edward sent his third son, Lionel, afterwards Duke of Clarence, to Ireland as viceroy. Lionel had an army of trained soldiers, but he did not accomplish much. He hated the Irish, and came to the conclusion that all the

trouble was caused by the friendship that was growing up between the English settlers and the natives. He therefore called together an Irish Parliament, and got it to pass a harsh and foolish law which was meant to keep the two races apart for ever.

15. Marriages between English settlers and native Irish were forbidden under pain of death. If an Englishman took an Irish name, or spoke the Irish language, or rode a horse without a saddle in the Irish way, or wore his whiskers as the Irish wore theirs, or did a number of other things, all his lands and houses were to be taken from him. Happily, this bad law could not be fully put into force. The king's officers in Ireland had too few soldiers to carry it out, so the Irish and English went on just as they had done before, and snapped their fingers at the king. Edward was too busy fighting in France to visit Ireland. At the time when France lay at his feet the English hold over Ireland was weaker than it had ever been since the days of Strongbow.

16. Richard the Second, in the year 1394, made a great effort to re-establish English power in Ireland. He crossed the Channel with an army. The chiefs met him in Dublin and submitted, as they were in the habit of doing ; but, at the same time, they were determined to remain as independent as ever. A year later Richard returned to England, and in 1399 crossed the Irish Sea once more with a large army.

17. His most persistent and skilful foe was Art Mac-Murrough Kavanagh, who forbore to fight in the open field, but harried the English line of march, and during the advance from Waterford to Dublin reduced the king's troops to a mere rabble. Shortly afterwards Richard learnt that

his cousin, Henry of Lancaster, had landed in England, and was marching on London. He hurried back to England, and there was forced to yield his crown to his cousin, who became Henry the Fourth. For two hundred and ninety years after Richard's departure no English king set foot in Ireland.

29. THE STORY OF IRELAND.—II.

1. During the long French wars, when England was following the will-o'-the-wisp of foreign dominion, and during the Wars of the Roses, when she was torn with civil strife, Ireland was left to itself. The native Irish constantly attacked the Pale, and the colony dwindled day by day until it was reduced to a narrow strip fifty miles long by twenty miles wide.

2. The Anglo-Irish were Yorkists almost to a man. They acknowledged Richard, Duke of York, as their viceroy, and they declared the Irish Parliament independent of England. They fought hard for the Yorkist cause, and they supported the pretenders, Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck. When Henry the Seventh came to the throne, he saw clearly that Ireland was the stronghold of his enemies, and that the time had come to assert himself in that "distressful country."

3. Now the strongest man in Ireland at this time was the viceroy, the Earl of Kildare, the "Great Earl," as he was called. He belonged to the powerful Anglo-Irish family of Geraldines, and he had large estates and a great host of retainers, all of whom wore a "G" on their breasts to

show that they were ready to give their hearts for their lord. Though descended from an Anglo-Norman family, Kildare had become a thorough Irishman. He spoke and wrote the Irish language, and lived in the Irish fashion.

4. Kildare was the leader of the Irish-Yorkists, and had taken part in the coronation of Lambert Simnel. This offence the king had forgiven; but when the "Great Earl" broke out again at the coming of Warbeck, Henry sent Sir Edward Poynings across the Channel to supersede him, and to break down the power of the nobility in Ireland. The first step was to weaken the Irish Parliament by a series of laws known for two centuries afterwards as the "Poynings' Acts." By these Acts the Irish Parliament became entirely dependent on that of England. No Act could be passed by the Irish Parliament unless it had been approved beforehand by the king and his council in England.

5. The next step was to bring Kildare, the head of the Irish lords, to trial for his treasons. He was seized and sent to London, where he was thrown into the Tower. During his absence a great rising of Anglo-Irish took place, and the king saw that Kildare was the only man to make the island peaceful. Kildare's enemies assured the king that "all Ireland cannot rule the Earl of Kildare." "Then," replied Henry, "the Earl of Kildare shall rule all Ireland." The "Great Earl" was pardoned and sent back to Dublin, where he turned over a new leaf, and was faithful to the English king. During the remainder of his life he was practically King of Ireland.

6. When Henry the Eighth came to the throne, he determined to reverse his father's policy of ruling Ireland by

means of the great Irish lords. His masterful nature would not let him be content to be the mere shadow of a king; he determined that Ireland should feel the grip of a master hand. Accordingly he seized the new Earl of Kildare, who was now viceroy, and threw him into the Tower. During the earl's imprisonment his son, Lord Thomas Fitzgerald—"Silken Thomas," as he was called from his love of finery—was provoked into rebellion by the false news that his father had been beheaded, and that the other members of his family were to suffer the same fate. With one hundred and forty of his retainers he burst into the council chamber, flung down his sword of office and his robes of state, and said he was no longer a subject of the English king.

7. Then began a time of fierce fighting, in which the native Irish took a part. Fitzgerald murdered the Archbishop of Dublin, and after being repulsed in his attempt to capture Dublin Castle, retreated to his castle of Maynooth, where he thought himself safe. Henry, however, had sent a train of artillery over to Ireland, where cannon were unknown. Maynooth was battered down in a fortnight, and its defenders were slaughtered.

8. Fitzgerald was captured, carried to England, and imprisoned in the Tower, where he was shortly joined by his five uncles. Henry now determined to destroy these powerful Geraldines altogether. In 1537 the young lord and his uncles were hanged at Tyburn, and thus the great house of Kildare fell. Only one Geraldine was left, a little boy, who was secretly taken to the west of Ireland, where he grew up amongst the native chiefs. In after years

Edward the Sixth restored this boy to his lands, and Queen Mary bestowed upon him the old family title.

9. "Irishmen," wrote one of the judges, "were never in such fear as now." The new viceroy, Lord Grey, was a resolute man and a bold warrior, and he spared no effort to make the land orderly and peaceful. The power of the Crown, instead of being limited to a district round about Dublin, was acknowledged from one end of Ireland to the other.

10. Henry believed that Ireland's best hope of becoming peaceful and prosperous was to become English in law, language, and religion. He therefore set himself to win over the native chiefs to his side, by assuring them that their lands were safe, and that their power over their tribesmen should not be weakened. On their part, they had to promise amongst other things to refrain from wars, to pay a fixed tribute, to do service to the king, and to have a son educated at the English court.

11. This policy of making Ireland English would, no doubt, have been successful in the end, had not the land been plunged into religious strife at the moment when civil strife seemed to have ceased. When Henry made himself "Supreme Head of the Church of England and Ireland under Christ," there was at first no resistance either within or without the Pale, nor was there any great outcry when the Irish monasteries were suppressed.

12. When, however, Henry began to make changes in the doctrines and ceremonies of the Church, the Irish people stood firm, and despite all sorts of persecutions refused to depart from the old faith. Not a single Irishman became



Scenes from Richard the Second's Campaign in Ireland.

1. Conference of the Earl of Gloucester and an Irish chief. 2. Ships bringing provisions to the English host.

(From a Manuscript dated 1319.)

a Protestant, and all attempts at coercion only united the people against the Crown. Anglo-Irish and native Irish forgot their old differences in defence of their religion, and only successive plantations of English Protestants prevented their union into an Irish nation.

13. During Edward the Sixth's reign the persecution continued. Mary's reign brought a brief respite, but with the accession of Elizabeth trouble began once more. The Irish chiefs who rebelled were put down with a strong hand, and their lands were given to English "planters," who were to clear off the native Irish and "plant" English and Scottish settlers in their places. As you may imagine, savage warfare broke out between the planters and the Irish who had been driven off their lands. For one hundred and fifty years after the time of Henry the Eighth, Ireland was full of bloodshed and misery. Dreadful wars wasted the land, and nearly all the trouble was caused by attempts to make Ireland English in ownership and Protestant in religion.

14. Before long there was a national uprising led by one of the most vigorous and able leaders the Irish have ever known. This was Shane O'Neill, son of the Earl of Tyrone. Shane boldly put himself forward as the champion of Irish liberty, and before long he had an army at his back fired with a new courage. The viceroy marched against him, but suffered defeat three times. Fighting went on until nearly all Ulster was wasted with fire and sword. Then the Earl of Sussex marched against Shane O'Neill; but he, too, suffered defeat, and all his attempts to entrap or poison the rebel chief were unsuccessful.

15. Shortly afterwards Elizabeth invited Shane to London, and promised him a safe-conduct if he would come. Shane accepted the invitation, and with a guard of followers in yellow tunics, fur mantles, and sandals, attended Elizabeth at her Court. He bore himself bravely before the queen, who was pleased with him, and made him "Captain of Tyrone."

16. Elizabeth got Shane to promise that he would drive out a certain settlement of Scots which had been formed on the north-east coast of Ireland. Acting on this promise, he attacked the Scots at a place near Ballycastle, in County Antrim, and slew seven hundred of them. This victory made him master of the north of Ireland, and for two years he ruled Ulster with a strong hand. The council at Dublin vainly tried to reduce his power. "By the sword I have won these lands," he said, "and by the sword will I keep them."

30. THE STORY OF IRELAND.—III.

1. Sir Henry Sidney, who became viceroy of Ireland for the first time in 1565, was a man of great vigour and skill, and he was ill content to play second fiddle to the "Captain of Tyrone." Before long an open quarrel broke out between them, and Shane began to ravage the Pale. Sidney at once enlisted on his side the O'Donnells, whose lands Shane had seized, and the clan made a raid into Tyrone.

2. Crossing the Swilly to take vengeance on the raiders, Shane was met by O'Donnell, and after a fierce fight was hopelessly beaten. In his despair he madly threw himself

on the mercy of the Scots, whose hatred he had earned by attacking and defeating them two years before. They received him with a show of kindness, but shortly afterwards, during a drunken squabble, they hewed him and his followers to pieces.

3. After Shane's death, Elizabeth did everything she could to make her power felt in Ireland. The lands taken from O'Neill in Ulster were "planted" with English and Scottish settlers; but the native Irish fell upon them and slew them to a man. Several years later Elizabeth gave her favourite, the Earl of Essex, a large tract of land in Antrim, and he began to treat the Irish on his new estates with the most savage cruelty.

4. Essex burned their houses and cornfields, slew men, women, and children without mercy, and thus made way for his new settlers. Finally, however, he had to abandon his settlement. Other English planters were just as pitiless and bloodthirsty. One of them planned a very effective method of preventing the Irish of his territory from ever rising against him: he invited four hundred of them to a great banquet, and when all were seated, fell upon them and slew them all save one.

5. These and similar doings greatly angered the Irish chiefs, who were now being urged by the Pope to attempt the overthrow of Elizabeth. The Geraldines, who had once more become great and powerful, began the rising, which was chiefly directed by the Earl of Desmond, and assisted by Spanish officers. At first they had some success, and soon most of Munster was in their hands.

6. Then Sir William Pelham, the lord-justice, and the



EDMUND SPENSER READING THE "FAERIE QUEENE" TO SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

(From the picture by John Claxton. By permission of W. Burdett-Coutts, Esq., M.P.)
Spenser wrote a considerable part of the "Faerie Queene" while residing in Kilcolman Castle, Co. Cork.

Earl of Ormond, Desmond's enemy, united their forces and overran Munster, hunting the flying people and slaughtering them by hundreds. Slaying and burning went on almost unchecked, and the land was in a frightful state. While Pelham and Ormond were putting down the Desmond rising, a revolt began within the Pale itself. The men of the Pale trapped Lord Grey's army in a wooded pass and cut it to pieces.

7. Grey returned to Dublin, and in a few weeks got a new army together. Meanwhile Desmond had received reinforcements of eight hundred Spanish and Italian soldiers. They had come too late to be of any use, and they now seized and strengthened an old fort by the sea at Smerwick, in Kerry. Leaving the Pale to take care of itself, Grey hastened to Smerwick, which was blockaded by land and sea. At last it surrendered, and almost all the men in the fort were shot, though their lives had been promised them.

8. Then Grey returned to the Pale, and soon put down the rebellion. All was over with the rebels, and the great Earl Desmond was a homeless outlaw with a price on his head. He was hunted from one hiding-place to another, but was finally captured and put to death. Munster, the "Garden of Ireland," was laid waste. "The lowing of a cow or the sound of a ploughboy's whistle was not to be heard from Valentia to the Rock of Cashel."

9. The poet Spenser, who fought with Lord Grey, gives us a melancholy picture of the people who wandered about half dead with hunger. He tells us that they looked more like skeletons than human beings, and that their pitiful plight

would have melted the most stony heart. The Desmond lands were distributed in large tracts to English nobles and gentlemen, who were pledged to colonize them with labourers and tradesmen. Not many of these labourers and tradesmen came across the Channel, and those who did soon returned, weary of struggling with the Irish.

10. During the rising of the Geraldines, Ulster remained quiet. She was soon to be in arms under one of the most brilliant men of Irish history. This was Hugh O'Neill, the grandson of the O'Neill whom Henry the Eighth had made Earl of Tyrone. He had spent his youth at the Court of Queen Elizabeth, and had won the favour of the queen, for he was a good scholar, a polished gentleman, and a fine soldier.

11. When he came of age he returned to Ireland, and taking the title of "The O'Neill," revived all the old Irish customs. For a long time he took no part in any of the plots against the Government, but at last he was driven into rebellion. He had been greatly angered by the cruel treatment of his young brother-in-law, and he had a bitter enemy in Sir Henry Bagenal, the commander of the English forces in Ireland. O'Neill had run away with Bagenal's daughter Mabel, and had married her against her father's will.

12. When O'Neill took up arms, the Irish chiefs flocked to him, and at last it seemed that Ireland had found a noble and skilful leader, who would be able to throw off the yoke of the English. Several battles were fought, most of which the Irish won. An important battle took place near Bellanoy, or the Yellow Ford, on the river Callan, two miles north of Armagh. Bagenal was in command of the English.

who were pushing forward to relieve the fort at Portmore, which was then besieged by O'Neill. The road from Armagh to Portmore was narrow and uneven, and had bogs and woods on both sides of it. O'Neill posted his men near the Yellow Ford, and waited for the coming of the English.

13. Deep holes were dug in the road, which was partly blocked by felled trees, and in front of O'Neill's line was a trench a mile long. Bagenal began his march on the morning of August 14, 1598, and was soon attacked by O'Neill's men, who lined the woods and thickets on both sides of the way. The English army struggled on, and the first regiment crossed the trench, only to be utterly overthrown by the Irish. The second regiment was charged by O'Neill and his horsemen, and suffered the same fate. The third regiment was also destroyed, and the fourth was thrown into confusion by the blowing up of a wagon of gunpowder. At this moment O'Neill charged, and the English turned and fled. Two thousand of them were slain, and their cannon, gunpowder, and stores fell into the hands of the victors.

14. Soon O'Neill was master of the whole of Ireland except Dublin and a few other places. The Irish had fought most bravely, and they had been led by soldiers who understood the art of war. It now seemed that Ireland was on the eve of becoming free once more. Elizabeth was old and feeble, but she would not let Ireland go without a struggle. An army of 20,000 men was raised, and was placed under command of the Earl of Essex, one of her favourites.

15. The Irish wisely took care not to meet such a great army in the open field, but hung upon its flanks, and picked off large numbers of the English soldiers as they marched to and fro. At length, however, O'Neill arranged a meeting with Essex, and a truce was agreed upon. This truce was not at all pleasing to Elizabeth, and indirectly drove Essex to the mad rebellion which brought him to the scaffold.

16. Tyrone was now at the height of his power, but he did not long continue in peace. He invaded Munster in 1600, and Lord Mountjoy, an able and wary general, was sent against him. Mountjoy destroyed the crops and burned the villages, and made Ulster a desert. Matters were going badly with O'Neill, when news arrived that a Spanish fleet of fifty vessels had reached Kinsale. The Irish chief at once marched towards that place with 5,000 men. The English laid siege both by land and by sea to the Spaniards; and the Irish made a plan to surprise the English, but a traitor carried the news to their camp. A night attack was arranged, but when O'Neill came near the enemy's lines at dawn he found the English were quite ready for him. After a desperate fight the Irish were beaten, and the English captured the town.

17. After this battle O'Neill's broken army could no longer stand against the large numbers of English which were brought against it. The brave earl was compelled to come to terms. He was forced to surrender his estates, give up all claim to the title "The O'Neill," and promise to introduce English laws and customs into Tyrone. Just after the rebellion came to an end Elizabeth died.

31. THE PLANTATION OF ULSTER.

1. Here is an outline map of Ireland with a number of black dots scattered about upon it. The dots have not been made at random; each of them indicates the situation of a place with an English name. The great bulk of Irish place-names are of Celtic origin, and this will not surprise us when we recollect that the real conquest of Ireland did not take place until the reign of Elizabeth.

2. All down the centuries until the time of Elizabeth the Celtic population remained the real masters of the soil. It is true that the Danes made settlements on the coast, and that the Anglo-Norman knights of Henry the Second carved out large estates with their swords. But Dane and Norman alike yielded to the influence of the Celts, and their descendants, as you already know, became more Irish than the Irish themselves.



3. Now, how is it that in the midst of an overwhelming number of Celtic place-names we find towns and villages with English names? I think you can supply the answer to this question from what you learnt in the last lesson. I told you how the estates of rebellious Irish chiefs were seized, and parcelled out amongst Englishmen on the understanding that they should colonize them with their fellow-countrymen.

4. For example, some years after the end of the Desmond rebellion Sir Walter Raleigh and Edmund Spenser, both of

whom served in Grey's army at the siege of Smerwick Castle, received grants of land. Raleigh was rewarded with forty-two thousand acres in Munster, including the house of the Earl of Desmond at Youghal. With great vigour he set about peopling his estate with English settlers, and in his Youghal garden grew tobacco and the first potatoes ever planted in Ireland. Spenser received the estate of Kilcolman, in County Cork, and settled on the land in 1589. He was bitterly hated by the native Irish whom he had driven off his lands, and during the insurrection of Hugh O'Neill they burnt his castle to the ground and forced him to flee for his life.

5. After the Earl of Tyrone yielded to Elizabeth, the conquest of Ireland was complete, and no Irish chieftain claimed to rule his district independently of the King of England. When James came to the throne, he listened to the advice of Lord Bacon, who pointed out that a great settlement of English husbandmen in Ireland would not only ensure the land being properly tilled, but would act as an English garrison. Till this was done, he said, Ireland would always be a source of danger.

6. James was eager to make the experiment, and when Tyrone and Tyrconnell, falsely accused of fresh treason, fled from Ireland to save their lives, the whole of their lands in Ulster, amounting to two million acres, were seized and divided up into farms of between one and two thousand acres each. These farms were given to English and Scottish "undertakers," on condition that they "planted" them.

7. The city of London undertook to "plant" Derry, and gave its name to the little town, which was soon to

become famous for its heroic siege. Various other city companies also took up large tracts of Ulster land, and speedily farms, homesteads, churches, and mills rose amidst the fruitful plains of Armagh, the deep pastoral glens of Donegal, and the meadow lands watered by the noble lakes and rivers of Fermanagh. The native peasants were driven from the "fat land," to wander homeless and half-starved amidst the barren mountains and trackless bogs. Harsh and illegal as the whole plantation was, Ulster nevertheless owes her prosperity and progress to-day to the race of sturdy, enterprising men introduced by King James in 1610.

8. James now began to plan fresh settlements in other parts of the country, especially in Leinster. As there were no vacant lands to seize in that province, he had to resort to trickery. He ordered an inquiry into the title by which each Irish landlord held his estates. The lawyers soon discovered flaws in the titles, and the judges were not slow to order the landlords to give up their estates or to ransom them with large sums of money.

9. Nearly half a million acres in Leinster were thus taken from their possessors and given over to English "undertakers." The wholesale evictions maddened the people. They continually swooped down upon the newcomers, burning houses, maiming cattle, and destroying crops. The settlers avenged these attacks by killing off all the wandering Irish they could lay their hands on.

10. After the accession of Charles the First, an effort was made by the Irish gentry to persuade the English Government to leave them in undisturbed possession of their lands. They offered to pay the king £120,000, a sum equal to

nearly a million of modern money, if he would grant them certain "graces," or reforms. The king, sorely in need of money, promised to grant the "graces;" but when he had received the money he broke faith with the Irish people, and his viceroy Wentworth, afterwards the Earl of Strafford, made Irish burdens heavier than before.

11. Strafford was determined to make his master absolute in Ireland. He largely increased the army, and ordered an inquiry into the titles by which the landed gentry of Connaught held their estates. Vast sums of money were wrung from the Connaught landholders, but their lands were not "planted," for Strafford had no wish to raise a rebellion while trouble was brewing with the Parliament in England.

12. Strafford left behind him a hated memory; yet with all his tyranny he served Ireland well. He kept order in the island, and enforced the laws on English and Irish alike. Trade increased during his rule, and he established and fostered the linen industry by encouraging the growth of flax and bringing over weavers from Flanders.

13. From this point to the close of the period with which this book deals we need not devote special lessons to the story of Ireland. In due course we shall hear of the rising of the Irish, and the massacre of Protestants, which occurred in the year 1641. We shall learn how King Charles made a secret treaty with the rebels, and how they fought for him. Then we shall read of the savage vengeance wreaked on them by Cromwell when the king's head was off and the army was supreme. With the settlement of the land by the Commonwealth, the story of Ireland may rest until we continue it in the next book.



32. WESTMINSTER HALL.—I.

1. To-day we will visit one of the three great historic buildings of London. The oldest of these ancient buildings, as you already know, is Westminster Abbey, which was founded by Edward the Confessor. Next in order of antiquity is the Tower, which might well be called a volume of English history bound in stone. The youngest of London's great historic buildings is Westminster Hall, which we are now about to visit.

2. We make our way to the Houses of Parliament, and crossing New Palace Yard, find ourselves at the door of the Hall. Directly we enter, we are struck with its vastness. With the exception of some of our great railway stations, it is the largest hall in the world with its roof unsupported by

pillars. Its length is not far short of one hundred yards, its breadth exceeds twenty-two yards, and its height thirty yards. Look up. Nowhere in the world will you find such a grand oaken roof. It is a very triumph of carpenter's work, and has lasted, with some renovation from time to time, for more than five hundred years.

3. William Rufus built the original hall thirty-one years after his father wrested the English throne from Harold, and his successors enlarged it and beautified it. It was rebuilt in the reign of Richard the Second, and the great oak roof dates from his day. From the time of Rufus to the time of Victoria it was the seat of the highest courts of justice. Law courts were built round it in early times, and trials were held in them until the year 1884, when the royal courts in the Strand were ready for occupation. Now it is used only for banquets or meetings on great State occasions.

4. No place in England has so many interesting historical memories. These ancient walls saw the trial of William Wallace, the great Scottish patriot; the deposition of Richard the Second, the king who rebuilt them; and the condemnation of Lord Cobham, the leader of the Lollards. Between the years 1605 and 1648 three other important state trials took place in Westminster Hall.

5. The first of these trials sent to the rack and the scaffold Guy Fawkes, the most active agent in the reckless conspiracy known as the Gunpowder Plot, which was formed by a few Catholics who were deeply disappointed because James the First refused to remit the severe laws enforced against them. Fawkes was seized in the vaults beneath the House of Lords, where he was preparing to

blow up James and his Parliament at the opening ceremony on November 5, 1605. The plot, which was revealed beforehand, came to nothing, and most of the conspirators were executed. The annual searching of the vaults below the Houses of Parliament prior to the opening of the session, and the burning of effigies of Guy Fawkes on November 5 in each year, still remind us of the popular panic caused by the plot.

6. The second trial resulted in the execution of Strafford, the hated minister of Charles the First. The third was the most striking of all—the trial of the king himself, on the charge of levying war against his people. A tablet on the floor of the hall marks the very spot upon which King Charles stood during his trial.

7. The story of Charles's life is the climax of the great struggle between King and Parliament which began in his father's reign. It was fought out in the council chamber, at the sword's point and the cannon's mouth, and the quarrel turned on this important question, Who shall rule—King or Parliament? In a former lesson I told you that Charles inherited his father's beliefs in the doctrine of the Divine right and the absolute power of kings. He pushed these doctrines to the utmost extreme, and in doing so ruined himself and plunged the nation into civil war. Charles was a far better man than his father, but he was faithless by nature and fond of dark and crooked ways. He was firmly convinced that between him and his subjects there could be no agreement which would bind him, and that whether he kept a promise or broke it was a matter for him to decide, and for him alone.

8. Now Charles was not clever enough to understand the great changes which were going on around him. He did not perceive that the time had gone by when men would allow the king to be a tyrant, and permit him to override both the law and the will of the people. With the help of his minister Strafford—"the very genius of tyranny"—he ruled for eleven years without a Parliament, and maddened the nation by all sorts of schemes to exact money from them.

9. The Star Chamber, which, you will remember, was at first a court to which the oppressed might appeal, became the great engine of his tyranny. Men who opposed or offended the king were punished by being scourged, branded on the cheek, having their ears lopped off, or being imprisoned for life. This cruel treatment turned many people against him, who otherwise would have been his friends.

10. Charles hated the Puritans, who were rapidly becoming a powerful party in the State, and under Archbishop Laud the courts were very busy in trying to crush them. A lady who lived at the time says: "Such as could not flee were tormented in the bishops' courts, fined, whipped, pilloried, imprisoned, and suffered to enjoy no rest, so that death was better than life to them; and notwithstanding their patient sufferance of all these things, yet was not the king satisfied till the whole land were reduced to perfect slavery."

11. Then, again, Charles had married a French princess, who had a great influence over him. For her sake he also showed favour to the Roman Catholics, and this helped to increase the anger of the people, who bitterly

hated the old faith and all its ways. At length a large body of the most earnest men in the State saw that, unless the king was curbed, all freedom would be banished from the land. You read in Book III. how John Hampden refused to pay the illegal ship-money, and after a trial which made him "the argument of all tongues," lost his case. Hampden's resistance thrilled England, and in the midst of the excitement grave news arrived from Scotland.

12. The patience of the Scots had at last broken down. At this time Laud was trying to make them use a new Book of Common Prayer, drawn up on the English model. When the Dean of St. Giles, the cathedral of Edinburgh, began to read the new service, it is said that a woman named Jenny Geddes flung her stool at his head and cried, "Will you say the mass in my lug [ear]?" This was the signal for a great riot. The Scots were roused, and they swore to resist Laud's tyranny to the death. You may still see in the churchyard of Greyfriars, Edinburgh, the tombstone on which thousands of persons of all ranks signed the National Covenant. "Such was the zeal of the subscribers that many subscribed with tears on their cheeks. Some are said to have drawn their own blood and used it in place of ink to underwrite their names."

13. The king was furious, and said he would rather die than yield to the Scottish demands. He prepared an army to put down the Scots, who lost no time in gathering together twenty thousand men, and placing over them officers of great experience. The English troops were very unwilling to fight, for many of them thought that the Scots



Charles I. leaving Westminster Hall after his Trial.

(From the picture by Sir John Gilbert, R.A., in the Mappin Art Gallery, Sheffield. By permission of the Corporation of Sheffield.)

were in the right. Charles found himself with unwilling soldiers and an empty treasury, and in this plight he was forced to make terms with the Scots and to summon a new Parliament. The men who came to it were determined to grant no supplies unless their grievances were redressed. Charles could wring no money from this Parliament, and in three weeks he dismissed it.

14. The Scots then invaded Northumberland, defeated the royal army in a skirmish near Newcastle, and fixed their headquarters in that city. The king was in despair, and again he was forced to call a Parliament—the famous Long Parliament, which was not finally dissolved until twenty years later. This Parliament was full of men determined to remove all grievances, and “pull up the causes of them by the roots.” Strafford was brought to trial, and a month later Laud was sentenced to death. You already know that Charles left them to their fate, and that they both perished on the scaffold.

15. The Long Parliament then abolished the Star Chamber and the courts which Laud had set up, and began to call attention to the illegal methods by which Charles had raised money. It also made the judges secure in their posts, and took away from the king the right to remove them if they did not please him. So far so good. But the Parliament now tried to remodel the Church by abolishing the bishops, and this caused a number of members to grow lukewarm, and to go over to the side of the king. At this Charles plucked up spirit, and went to Scotland, where he tried to win back the goodwill of the Scots.

33. WESTMINSTER HALL.—II.

1. While Charles was in Scotland a terrible rising took place in Ireland. The native Irish attacked the Protestant English colonists, and slaughtered five thousand of them in cold blood. The leader of the Irish showed a letter which he said Charles had sent him, giving him permission to carry out this cruel work. The letter had the royal seal of Scotland attached to it, and looked genuine, but it was really a forgery. Nevertheless, the English Puritans, who were now ready to think the worst of Charles, believed firmly that he had ordered the massacre.

2. When Parliament reassembled, the Puritan leaders drew up a long document of two hundred and four articles, setting forth all the illegal acts which Charles had done. This "Grand Remonstrance" ended with a list of reforms which they intended to carry out. Many members of Parliament, though they hated the tyranny of Charles, were not ready for such large changes as the Remonstrance set forth, and declared that they would rather trust the king than the Puritans. Charles had now a powerful party at his back, but, just at the moment when he might have won back his power by being wise and tactful, he did an act which made war inevitable.

3. His wife urged him to go to Parliament and seize the five great Puritan leaders. "Pull the rascals out by the ears," she said, and Charles tried to do so. I told you in Book III. how the king came down to Westminster at the head of four hundred or five hundred men, and entered the

House, only to discover that "the birds had flown." The five members had escaped to the city, and the king was foiled. He left the House amidst low mutterings of fierce discontent and loud cries of "Privilege ! Privilege !" The London militia rose in arms to protect the members, and both sides prepared to fight. The immediate measure which brought about war was a Bill placing the control of the militia, the only armed forces of the State, in the hands of the Parliament. The king's refusal to pass this Bill led by rapid stages to the civil war.

4. Charles sent his wife to Holland, with the crown jewels and all the money he could collect, in order to buy arms, powder, and shot. In April 1642 the king called upon Sir John Hotham, governor of Hull, to admit him into the town, and to give up the magazine of arms and gunpowder which it contained. Hotham shut the gates in the face of the king's troops, and said that he would only take orders from Parliament. On the stormy evening of August 22 the king raised his standard at Nottingham, and the great civil war began.

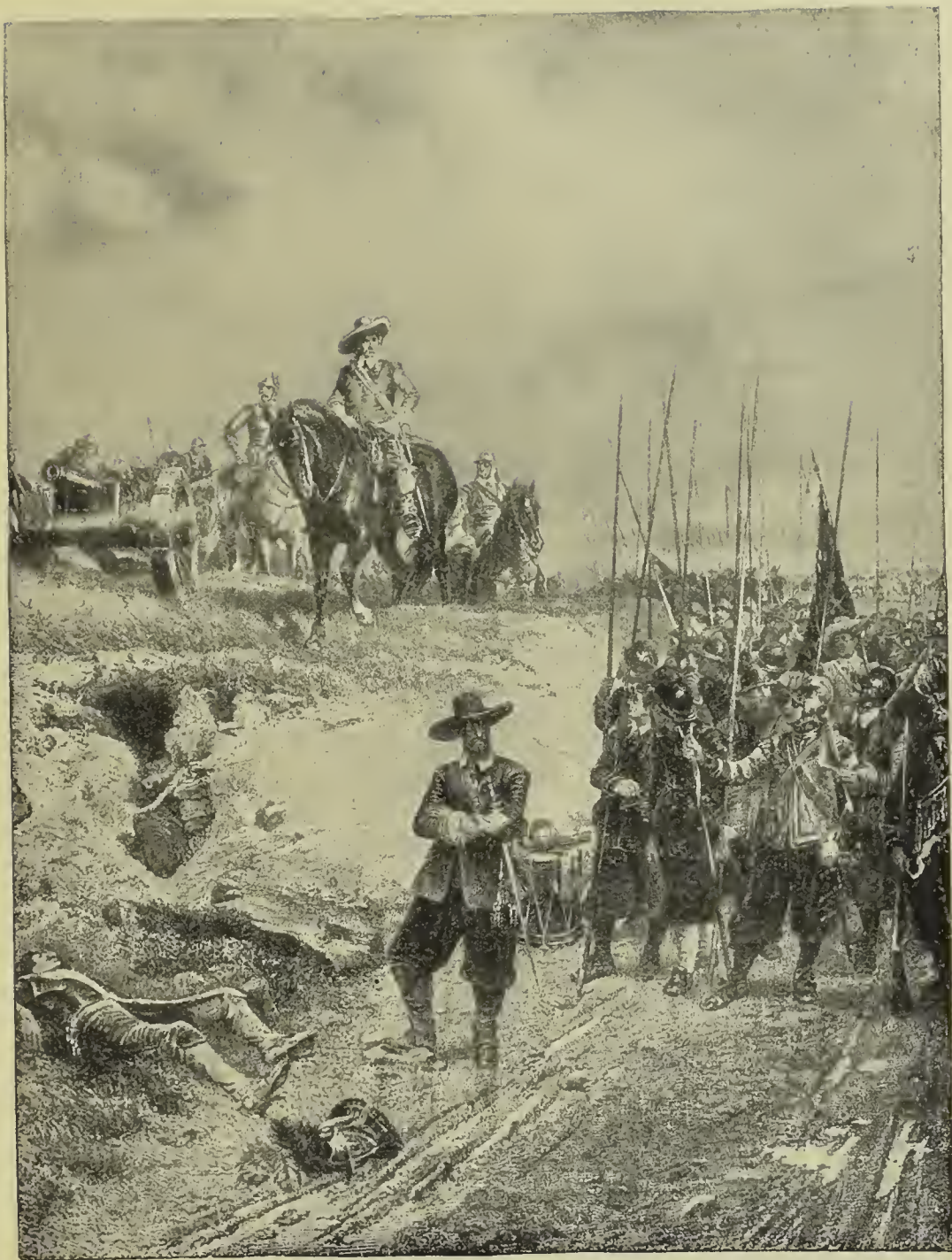
5. I do not propose to tell you the story of those miserable years, during which father fought against son, and brother against brother. We will hurry on to that fatal June day in the year 1645, when Cromwell's "new model" army scattered the Cavaliers like chaff before the wind on the field of Naseby. In the May of the next year Charles in despair rode to the camp of the Scots at Newark, and gave himself up to them. The Scots were glad to have him, and were ready to restore him to his throne if he would promise to support Presbyterianism in Scotland and make

the Church of England a Presbyterian Church. Charles refused, and the Scots gave him up to the English Parliament.

6. The English Parliament was now split up into two sections—the Presbyterians, who, as you already know, wished to do away with the bishops, and the Independents, who wished to have no State Church at all. The Presbyterians were the stronger party, and they had the custody of the king. They now offered to set him on his throne again if he would give up all claim to control the militia, the fleet, and the levying of taxation for twenty years, and if he would make the Church of England Presbyterian, and persecute the Roman Catholics.

7. Now, Charles had sworn that he would never sacrifice his crown, or his Church, even to save his life, and he kept his word. For months, however, he would not give a straightforward answer, but tried all sorts of tricks to gain time. He knew that Parliament was very divided, and he hoped that while the members were quarrelling amongst themselves he might regain his throne.

8. The Presbyterians feared the army, which was mainly composed of Independents, and Parliament now ordered the greater part of the forces to be dismissed. The leaders of the army refused to allow it to be disbanded, and a party of five hundred men rode to Holmby House in Northamptonshire, where the king was then living, and seized him. Now that the army had got the king into its hands, it marched on London, and owing to the flight of a number of Presbyterian members of Parliament the Independents found themselves in a majority.



CROMWELL AT MARSTON MOOR.
(From the picture by Ernest Crofts, A.R.A.)

9. They then proceeded to offer the king terms which he might easily have accepted, but he was still hopeful of winning his throne by the help of his friends and the Scots, and in an evil hour he refused. He managed to escape to the Isle of Wight, and took refuge in Carisbrooke Castle, from which place he sent terms both to the army and to Parliament. He really had no intention of making terms with either of them. He was only trying to gain time for his supporters to take the field once more.

10. In Scotland the Royalists had gained the upper hand, and in April they raised the royal standard and crossed the Border. Immediately the Royalists in England took up arms. The second civil war had begun, but it was soon to end. In less than three months Fairfax and Cromwell had hopelessly crushed the royal forces, and the king's doom was sealed. The army was now bitterly angry, and began to call for the death of Charles, "the man of blood." Parliament, however, was still willing to make terms with the king, but the army would have none of it. An officer named Pride marched his men to the House of Commons, and drove away the Presbyterian members, leaving only sixty Independents, who were known as "the Rump." On January 18, 1649, this Rump passed a Bill for bringing the king to trial, and appointed a High Court of Justice for the purpose.

11. Now let us try to realize the scene in Westminster Hall on the 20th day of January in the year 1649. The Hall is crowded with stern men, and the doors are guarded by Ironsides. Outside the mob is shouting, "Justice ! Justice !" Bradshaw, the lawyer who has been appointed

president of the court, takes his seat, and the names of the judges are read over. Out of one hundred and thirty-five, only sixty-nine answer to their names. Then the president rises and orders the sergeant to bring in the prisoner.

12. There is a deep hush, and the king enters between a guard of armed men. The members of the court, with their hats on their heads, remain seated in their places. The king also remains covered, and as he takes his seat he looks upon his judges with silent contempt. The clerk reads the charge, and when Charles hears himself described as a tyrant and traitor he laughs in the face of the court.

13. Usually the king hesitates in his speech, but to-day he is very fluent. He refuses to plead before such a court. He tells his judges that they have no right to try a king of England, and that they are an illegal meeting, appointed by the mere remnant of the House of Commons. Again and again he declares that they have no authority to sit in judgment on him, and at length the meeting is adjourned till next day. On that day and the next he makes the same protest.

14. Meanwhile, the crowd outside is beginning to show sympathy for the royal prisoner, and cries of "God save the King!" are heard. On the 24th and the 25th the judges hear evidence to prove the charge that the king has levied war against his subjects, and then the court withdraws to consider its verdict.

15. On the 27th, Bradshaw comes into court wearing a red robe in place of the customary black, and the king grows pale at the sight, for he knows that it means sentence of death. The president delivers a long and solemn speech to the king, the clerk reads the sentence, and the judges

stand in their places to signify their assent. The king tries to speak, but, being considered dead in law, is not allowed to do so. He is led away, and as he leaves the Hall he is greeted with cries of enmity and of good-will. As he passes, a soldier cries, "God bless you, sir," and immediately receives a buffet on the mouth from his officer. "Methinks," says the king, "the punishment exceeds the offence."

16. The condemned man is lodged in St. James's Palace, where he is allowed to take a last fond farewell of two of his children, the Princess Elizabeth and the little Duke of Gloucester. Then he spends the short remaining time in earnest prayer with his good friend Bishop Juxon. On the morning of the 30th of January he is led by armed men through the leafless avenues of St. James's Park to his palace of Whitehall, before which a scaffold draped with black has been erected. All marvel at the calm dignity which the king displays. "He nothing common did, or mean, upon that memorable scene."

17. The scaffold is hedged round with soldiers, and the headsman stands beside the block. The king makes a short speech to the people. He bids them remember that he dies a victim to the "power of the sword," that the nation is now the slave of the army, and that it will never be free again until it remembers its duty to its God and its king. He suffers death, he says, because he will not yield up the Church and the State to the army. Finally, he declares that he dies a Christian and a member of the Church of England. He lays his head upon the block with unflinching courage, the axe falls, and a deep groan goes up from the people.



34. THE MACE.—I.

1. To-day we will revisit the House of Commons. A kindly member of Parliament obtains permission for us to enter the inner lobby, and there we arrive at about twenty minutes to three in the afternoon. Soon we see a procession approaching, and as it draws near a policeman shouts, "Hats off, strangers. Mr. Speaker!" We remove our hats, and watch with great interest the procession filing by.

2. First comes a messenger wearing his gold badge of office, then the sergeant-at-arms in Court dress, with sword and silver-buckled shoes, escorting an official who carries on his shoulder a great gold staff with a heavy head shaped like a crown. This is the mace, the symbol of the authority of the House of Commons. Behind the sergeant-at-arms walks the Speaker, in full Court dress and wearing his full-bottomed wig and long silk robe, the train of which is borne by an official. Behind Mr. Speaker and his train-bearer comes the chaplain in gown and hood.

3. The little procession passes into the House of Commons. The Speaker takes his seat, and the chaplain reads prayers, after which the business of the day begins. What has become of the mace? It has been placed in the rests

provided for it on the table. As long as the House of Commons sits as the House of Commons, the mace lies on the table. When the House of Commons "goes into Committee"—that is, when it meets to discuss the details of Bills, as the new laws proposed to be made are called—the mace is placed under the table.

4. Now, the mace which you see before you is the third which the House of Commons has possessed. The first mace disappeared after the execution of Charles the First, and has never been traced. A new mace was then made, and this in turn disappeared after the very striking incident which will be related in the next lesson.

5. In the last lesson I told you the story of the trial and execution of King Charles. You remember that the king on the scaffold said that he died a victim to the "power of the sword," and that the nation was now slave to the army. This was quite true. The army was supreme, and immediately after the king's death it set up a republic or "Commonwealth." The House of Lords was abolished, but the "Rump" of the Long Parliament still remained. It consisted only of Independents, and its authority was entirely derived from the army.

6. The news of the king's death at the hands of his subjects aroused great anger abroad and much grief amongst the Royalists at home. Ten days after his death, a book called "Eikon Basilike," or the "True Portrait" of the king, was published. It was said to be the private journal of Charles, and it represented him as a most saintly person—perfect man and perfect king. In spite of all the attempts of Parliament to suppress the book, it circulated everywhere,

and was read with sobs and tears. The book was a fraud and a dull and worthless piece of literature. Nevertheless, its effect was startling, and men who formerly had not favoured Charles now began to speak of him openly as "the martyr." John Milton, of whom you will read in a later lesson, wrote an answer to it; but even his splendid ability could not stem the tide of sympathy for the dead king.

7. In Scotland and Ireland the people defied the authority of the Commonwealth, and in the army itself there was a serious mutiny. Cromwell, however, was equal to all the demands made upon him. He burst upon the mutinous regiments at midnight and stamped out the revolt in a few hours. Prince Charles, the son of Charles the First, had already been proclaimed king in Scotland, and an embassy had been sent to Holland to invite him to ascend the throne. In Ireland the Parliamentary forces had been overcome, and only Dublin remained in their hands. A Dutch war was also threatening.

8. In 1649 Cromwell crossed over to Ireland with an army burning to revenge the massacres of 1641-1642. His buff-coated soldiers were for the most part strongly religious men, who believed they were chosen by the Almighty for carrying out His work. They rode to battle with psalms on their lips; they were absolutely fearless and utterly pitiless. In Ireland they stormed town after town, and slew the garrisons almost to a man.

9. Such terror was struck into the people that they made but little resistance. Thousands perished by famine and the sword, and shiploads of people were sent over the seas as slaves to the West Indies. More than forty thou-

sand Irish soldiers enlisted in the armies of France and Spain. Cromwell left behind him in Ireland a bitter hatred of his name. Long afterwards the Irish peasant used to call down the "curse of Cromwell" on an offending person.

10. Cromwell was determined that the Irish should never have a chance to rise again. Most of the leaders of the revolt were executed, and a plan was made for removing the Irish from the fruitful provinces of Ulster, Leinster, and Munster into the stern and barren country of Connaught. An order was issued that the Irish were to move to the west by May 1, 1654, and that those who did not obey were to be executed. Terrible suffering was caused by this decree.

11. Then followed the "Cromwellian settlement." The army and those adventurers who had lent money for the war drew lots for the land which they were to occupy in the three provinces. Then the men of the regiments drew lots for their farms. Years were occupied in settling the land in this way, for the Irish landowners could not be completely cleared out. In the course of time the settlers began to mingle with the Irish and to marry their daughters. Thus even the stern Ironsides became Irish as the years passed by.

12. Very harsh laws were made against the priests, but though they were hunted down they did not altogether disappear. The Irish were resolved to keep alive their religion, so the priests remained amongst them, hiding in secret chambers and wild places, or wearing disguises and performing the offices of their Church wherever their poor flocks could gather in safety.

13. Cromwell entered London amidst the shouts of the populace, but his days of warfare were not yet over. Prince Charles had already landed in Scotland, had sworn to support Presbyterianism, and was now at the head of an army. Cromwell pushed northward and entered Scotland in July 1650. A large Scottish force, under a veteran general named David Leslie, lay between Edinburgh and Leith, and Cromwell, unable to get provisions for his army, had to fall back on Dunbar, where his fleet lay.

14. Leslie followed him, occupied the hills above the town, and blocked the roads southward, thus cutting off the English retreat along the coast. Leslie was in a very strong position, and Cromwell was in a desperate plight. The Commonwealth troops were sick and starving, and the Lord-General had decided to put them on board the ships at nightfall. However, as dusk approached, a movement was seen in the Scottish camp. To the astonishment of Cromwell, the Scottish horse began to move down from the hills to the plain, whereupon he cried, "The Lord hath delivered them into our hand."

15. Just as the sun rose over the sea, Cromwell flung his Ironsides at the Scottish cavalry, who made a brief but desperate resistance, and then broke and fled, throwing the foot-soldiers who were hurrying to their assistance into confusion. The battle was all over in an hour, and Cromwell left three thousand of the enemy dead on the field, his own loss being small. Ten thousand prisoners, and all the Scottish baggage and the guns were taken. The defeat was a rout. Shortly afterwards Cromwell entered Edinburgh, and began the work of conquering the Lowlands.

35. THE MACE.—II.

1. Early in the new year Cromwell won his way to Perth, and there discovered that Prince Charles, with another Scottish army, had slipped past him and had entered England, trusting that the men of Lancashire and Wales would flock to his standard. Cromwell turned and hastened south with all speed, and caught the invaders at Worcester. Once more his Ironsides won the day, and Prince Charles was a fugitive. I told you in Book I. the story of his perilous wanderings and of his escape to France.

2. The king being dead and his son defeated, Cromwell was now supreme, but as yet he was nothing more than commander of the army. The "Rump" still sat, but Cromwell and the army wished it to dissolve as soon as possible, and allow a new Parliament to be elected. The "Rump," however, was anxious to continue in power, and it brought in a Bill to enable the sitting members to retain their seats. Here we reach the story of the mace.

3. Look at the picture on page 199. It represents the interior of the House of Commons, with the "Rump" sitting. The date is April 20, 1653. The central figure is Cromwell; to his left are his soldiers armed with sword and spear. He has determined to put an end to the "Rump," and the picture represents him doing so. When he came down to the House of Commons, he left a number of armed men outside the door, and took his seat as a private member. Presently he arose and spoke his mind freely. He told the members that they were a set of worthless talkers, with no zeal for religion or reform. "But your hour hath come,"

he cried ; “ the Lord hath done with you. I will put an end to your prating. It is not fit that you should sit here any longer. You should give place to better men. You are no Parliament.”

4. Then he put on his hat, strode to the table, and stamped on the floor. Instantly thirty of his soldiers entered and drove out the members. The Speaker refused to leave the chair, and tried to speak. His voice was drowned in the uproar. Then one of Cromwell’s friends offered to lend him a hand to come down, and the Speaker yielding to force did so. Pointing to the mace, Cromwell said, “ What shall we do with this bauble ? Here, take it away,” and a soldier removed it. Then he locked the door and strode away with the key in his pocket. Thus amidst a scene of violence ended the rule of the Long Parliament, which had sat for thirteen years.

5. Six weeks later another House was summoned by Cromwell in his own name and by his own authority. It was known as “ Barebones ” Parliament, from the name of a member, a London merchant, who, according to the Puritan fashion of the time, was called Praise-God Barbone. This Parliament was composed of men who wished to overturn everything in the State. Cromwell accused them of trying to substitute the law of Moses for the law of England. The members quarrelled fiercely among themselves, and at last gave up to the Lord-General the powers they had received from him. A council of officers drew up a new constitution and requested Cromwell to become Lord Protector, with rights and duties which differed very little from those of a king.

6. For nine months the Lord Protector ruled without any check whatever. Then a new Parliament was called, and few Parliaments have been so truly representative of the British people. It was the first Parliament in which members from Scotland and Ireland sat side by side with the English members. The Parliament met on the third anniversary of the Worcester fight, September 3, 1654, but it hampered and hindered the Protector at every turn, and in five months he dissolved it. A second Parliament was called in 1656, and it established a sort of House of Lords, and asked Cromwell to become king. You already know that he refused the title, though he was king in all but name. The Parliament was dismissed in a few months, and Cromwell never called another.

7. For the rest of his reign he ruled as a despot, but he made his land feared and respected abroad, and kept good order at home. "We always reckon those eight years," said a Royalist bishop, "as a time of great peace and prosperity." Trade and commerce increased, and the people had a greater freedom of worship than they had ever had before. Nevertheless, Cromwell was bitterly hated, and his life was always in danger. He wore armour beneath his clothes, and slept in a different room almost every night. His enemies published a pamphlet pointing out that in his case "killing" was no murder. Despite the ever-present danger, he went his way fearlessly, though expecting a pistol-shot from every dark corner.

8. In the year 1658 his health began to fail. He was worn out with hard work and constant anxiety, and his hour had come. "I would be willing to live," murmured



“Take away that Bauble!”

(From the picture by Benjamin West, P.R.A.,)

the dying man, "to be further serviceable to God and His people, but my work is done!" On September 3, 1658, the anniversary day of his great victories at Dunbar and Worcester, he breathed his last.

9. Cromwell's son Richard quietly stepped into his father's place, but he was an easy-going country gentleman, with none of his father's masterful power. He called a Parliament, which contained many Royalists, and before long was at loggerheads with the army. Within a year Richard, yielding to the threats of the soldiers, dissolved Parliament and resigned his office. He went off to his country seat of Hursley, and there lived quietly for more than forty years. The army now recalled the forty survivors of the "Rump," and, to the great contempt of the nation, installed them at Westminster. Meanwhile the chiefs of the army began to quarrel amongst themselves, and for eight months there was no government worth the name.

10. The commander of the army in Scotland was George Monk, a cool, self-possessed man, who determined to use the forces at his command to restore steady and lawful government in place of the harsh and uncertain rule of the sword. Crossing the Tweed, he marched south with seven thousand men and seized London. A new Parliament was called, and was found to be full of Royalists. Monk saw clearly that the nation was ready for a king once more. Prince Charles was invited to return, and on the 29th of May, in the year 1660, he rode into London amidst loud shouts of joy. "It must be my own fault," he said, "that I have not come back sooner, for I find nobody who does not tell me that he has always longed for my return."

36. TWO GREAT PURITAN WRITERS.

1. This morning we will pay a visit to the city of London, which, as you know, still preserves in its old buildings many most interesting memorials of the past. We start from St. Paul's, walk along Cheapside, and turn to the left along Wood Street, now the headquarters of the wholesale haberdashery trade. Near the top of Wood Street is the Church of St. Giles, Cripplegate.

2. This church was built in the fourteenth century, and was fortunate in escaping the Great Fire, of which we shall read in a later lesson. St. Giles's has many historical memories for us. Cromwell and his wife were married in this church on August 22, 1620; and amongst other men of note, Foxe, the author of the "Book of Martyrs," and Sir Martin Frobisher, the famous "sea-dog," lie buried within it. The great glory of St. Giles's, however, is its claim to be the last resting-place of John Milton, the great



MILTON'S STATUE.



Cromwell dictating Dispatches to Milton.

From the picture by David Murray Brown, in the New York Art Gallery. By permission of the Metropolitan Museum of Art.

Puritan poet and prose writer, of whom Wordsworth wrote :—

“Thy soul was like a star, and dwelt apart ;
So didst thou travel on life's common way
In cheerful godliness.”

In front of the church is a fine bronze statue of the poet, and his supposed grave is marked within the church by a stone in front of the chancel arch.

3. John Milton was eight years of age when Shakespeare died. He was born in Bread Street, Cheapside, within sound of “Bow Bells.” If you visit Bread Street, you will see on a block of business premises, at the corner of the street where it joins Watling Street, a tablet with the following inscription :—

“Milton born in Bread Street in 1608 ; baptized in
All Hallows Church, which stood here *ante* 1878.”

4. Educated at St. Paul's School, and afterwards at Christ's College, Cambridge University, Milton was intended for the Church ; but he was not ordained, partly because he was a strong Puritan, and partly because he was filled with the desire to compose a great work which should be an honour to his country and to the English language. Milton believed that no one could worthily write of great things unless his own life was worthily lived. He strove continually to “love Virtue.”

“She can teach ye how to climb
Higher than the sphery chime.”

5. After leaving Cambridge, he lived at his father's country house, studying early and late, and writing many

beautiful verses. Then he went for a long tour on the Continent, and on his return settled down as a writer and teacher in London. He wrote not only poetry but prose; but his prose, though great, is inferior to his poetry. Milton's chief poem is called "Paradise Lost." It is the story of how Adam and Eve were driven from Eden. When you are older you will read it, and marvel at the wonderful visions which Milton saw, and the noble verses in which he described them.

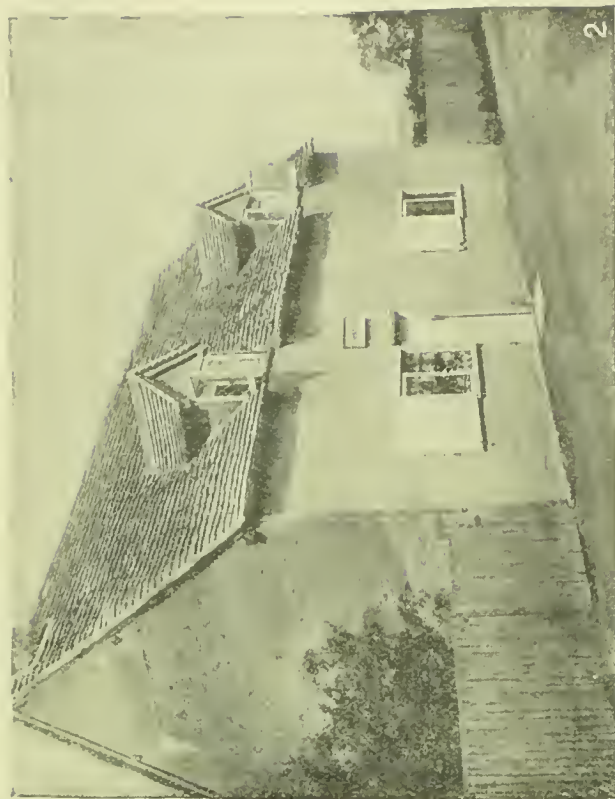
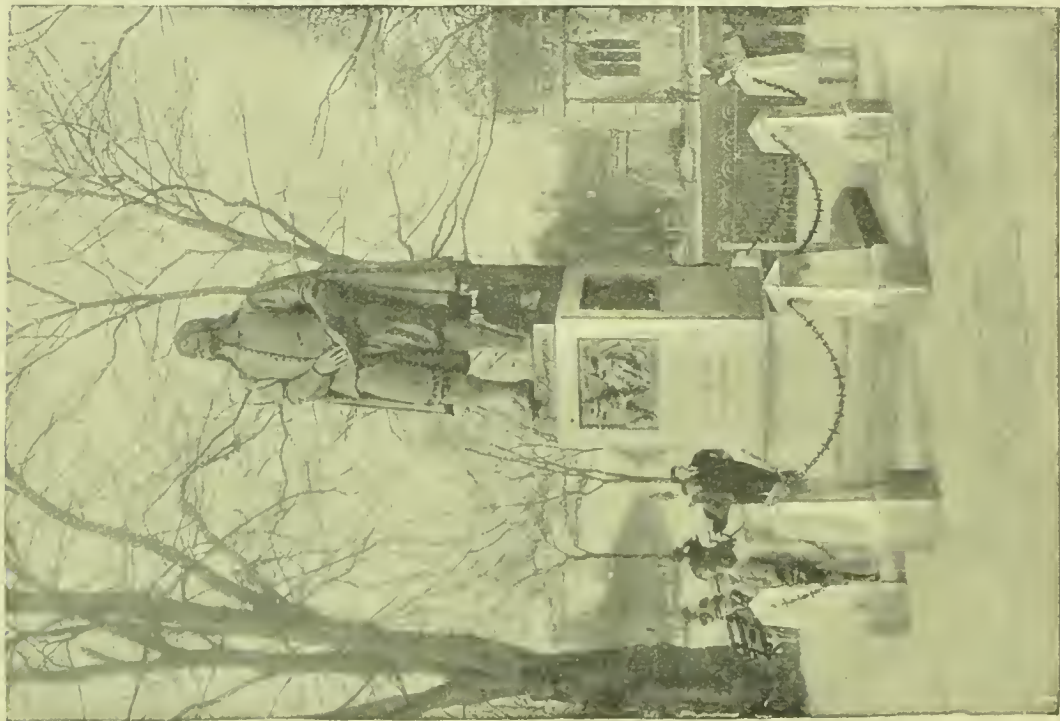
6. When the axe fell on the neck of Charles the First, Milton was forty-one years of age. He was strong on the side of the Parliament, and he wrote a book in which he maintained that the execution of the king was lawful. This brought him to the notice of Cromwell, who made him Latin secretary to the Council of State. His work was to translate into Latin all the letters relating to foreign affairs which passed between Cromwell and the heads of other states. Latin was then the language employed in such communications. In our days French is the language so used.

7. Look at the picture on page 202. Seated on the table in the foreground is Cromwell. Writing at the table is a secretary, and to his right is Milton, turning Cromwell's words into Latin. Perhaps you ask why the poet does not write down the words himself. Alas, in 1654 he became totally blind. His secretary, whose name was Andrew Marvell, was also a Cambridge man and a poet of renown. He did not write like Milton of the great things of life and death, of judgment and heaven, but poems and songs of a lighter and sometimes a playful character. His masterpiece is his ode upon Cromwell's return from Ireland.

8. Look at the picture again. At this time, in the Alpine valleys of the south-east of France, lived the Waldenses, a body of stubborn Puritans whose beliefs were hateful to the Pope. They had been persecuted for generations, but had held their ground with heroic stubbornness. In the year 1655 the Duke of Savoy attempted to convert them by force, and treated them with savage cruelty, slaying some thousands of them. The news reached Cromwell's ears, and he was greatly moved by it. He dictated a stern letter to the King of France, calling upon him to put an end to the persecution. The blind poet was as much stirred as Cromwell himself, and here you see him translating the noble message which brought the bloodshed and cruelty to an end. Milton afterwards wrote a splendid sonnet on the same subject.

9. Cromwell was a strong ruler, and he dared to do what no ruler of England had ever done before—that is, to threaten the King of France with war unless the slaughter ceased, and the Waldenses were allowed to worship unmolested in their own way. The French king very wisely did as he was told, and the persecution ceased. No incident in the whole history of the Commonwealth shows more clearly the great respect in which England was then held amongst the powers of Europe.

10. The Restoration was Milton's ruin. He had written too many bitter things of the Stuarts to hope for favour at the hands of Charles the Second, who actually tore out of their graves and hanged upon a gibbet the bodies of Cromwell, Bradshaw, and other "regicides." After being six months in hiding, and having two of his books burnt by the hangman, he was permitted to end his days in peace.



BUNYAN AND BEDFORD.

1. Bunyan's statue on St. Peter's Green.
2. Bunyan's birthplace at Elslow.
3. Bunyan's prison (north gatehouse of Bedford Bridge).

He died in 1674, poor and almost friendless, leaving behind him a fame which will endure as long as Britons speak and love their noble English tongue.

11. One other great writer of Commonwealth times must claim our attention, because the best known of his books is one of the great monuments of our literature. If we visit the town of Bedford, we shall see on St. Peter's Green a monument to John Bunyan, the "inspired tinker" who wrote "The Pilgrim's Progress," the most popular religious book ever produced in England. If we walk along the Luton road for a mile, we shall come to the village of Elstow, and any one will direct us to the humble cottage in which the great writer was born. In the parish church we shall find painted windows to his memory. His grave is in Bunhill Fields, London, but the gravestone, with the plain inscription, "Here lies John Bunyan," has long since disappeared.

12. John Bunyan was the son of a tinker, and was born in November 1628. He attended the grammar school at Bedford, but his education was neglected. In the year of Marston Moor he was drafted into the army, and fought in the Civil War, probably on the side of the Parliament. In the next year he returned to Elstow, and there married a poor girl who brought with her two religious books belonging to her father. "We came together," says Bunyan, "as poor as poor might be, not having so much as a dish or a spoon between us."

13. Soon after, he became conscious of his great sinfulness, and for a time was very miserable. How wretched and despairing he became we can learn from his book, "Grace Abounding," in which he describes his experiences.

He became a Baptist, and about the year 1656, when twenty-eight years of age, he began to take part in the Baptist ministry and preach in the open air. His earnest words made a great impression on his hearers, and he soon had a large following.

14. Then came the Restoration, and, as you will learn in a later lesson, a terribly hard time began for the Dissenters. An Act of 1664 forbade their public religious meetings altogether. Bunyan was warned to cease from preaching, but he refused, and was imprisoned in the north gatehouse on Bedford Bridge. The justices who tried the case were anxious to release him if he would promise to stop preaching, but he would accept no freedom which would keep him silent. The consequence was that he was kept in prison for twelve long years. His jailer was a kindly man, and permitted him the use of pen, ink, and paper. Thus it was that during his long imprisonment Bunyan wrote his wonderful book, "The Pilgrim's Progress"—a work which for more than two centuries has found its place in most Christian homes side by side with the Bible.

15. Towards the end of the twelve years the harshness of his imprisonment was much relaxed. In 1672 he was pardoned, and again began to practise his old trade. A great writer tells us that "his writings and sufferings had now made him famous throughout England." He was soon recognized as the head of the Baptist body, and once a year visited London to preach to crowded congregations in the Baptist chapels of the great city.

16. During the sixteen years following his imprisonment he wrote numerous other works, including a kind of novel

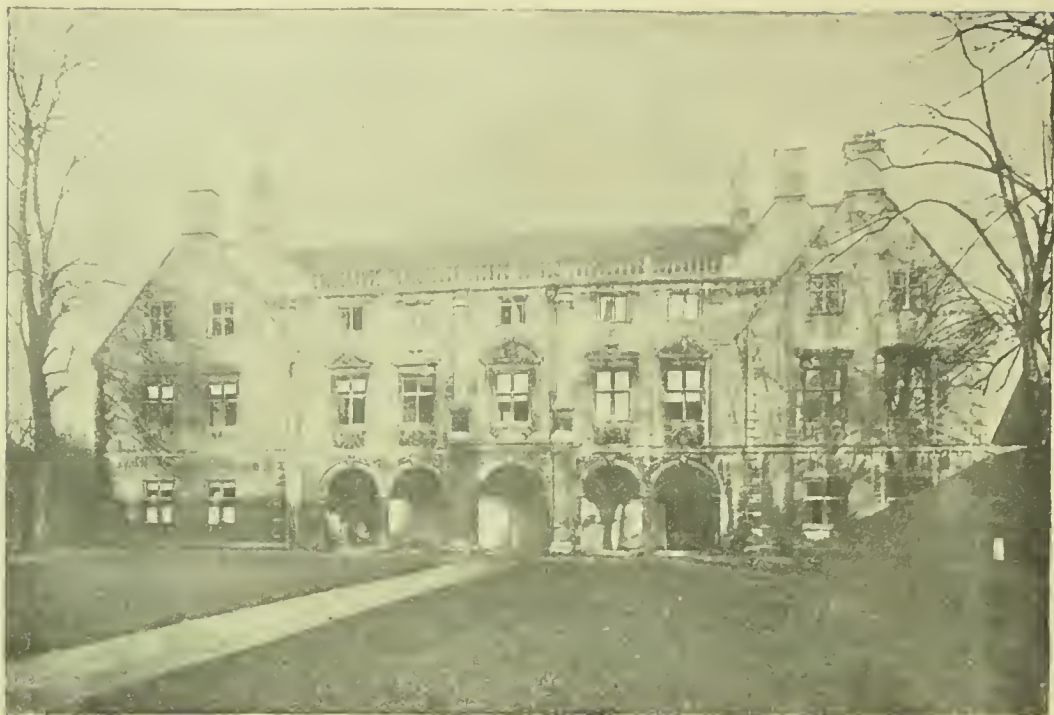
called "The Life and Death of Mr. Badman." His death occurred in August 1688, the year of the Revolution. He had ridden through heavy rain in order to reconcile a prodigal son with his father, and had been soaked to the skin. A fever attacked him, and after an illness of ten days he died in his sixty-first year.

37. A CURSE AND A BLESSING.

1. To-day we will visit the university city of Cambridge and find our way to the old college known as Magdalene, but called by the students "Maudlin." It was founded as far back as the reign of Henry the Eighth, on the site of an older college built in the days of Henry the Sixth. You will be sure to admire the fine entrance gateway, the quadrangle, the chapel, and the dining-hall.

2. From the quadrangle we pass into what is called the Second Court. Here we see a fine building known as the Pepysian Library, after Samuel Pepys,* a famous student of the College who became Secretary to the Admiralty in the time of Charles the Second. Above the central window you will see his arms and his motto in Latin. Pepys left his valuable books and prints to his old college, and they were placed in this building in the year 1724. They are now kept in a fireproof room at the back of the south wing. The twelve bookcases of red oak in which Pepys carefully arranged his treasures in his own house are still in use.

* Pronounced Peps, or Peeps.



PEPYSIAN LIBRARY, MAGDALENE COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE.

3. Amongst the books which Pepys left to Magdalene College were six volumes of about three thousand pages written in shorthand. These volumes lay neglected for more than a hundred years, and nobody knew what they contained until a clergyman named Smith studied the shorthand in which they were written and turned the contents into longhand for all the world to read. It was then discovered that the books were nothing less than the diary which Pepys had kept, and in which he wrote very freely an account of the doings of each day from January 1, in the year 1660, to May 31, 1669.

4. Pepys was a good man of business, but he was also a man of fashion and pleasure. He was well known to the king and to most of the great men of his time. His official

position brought him into contact with the Court, and he was well informed about all that was going on. When the diary was first published, in 1825, it was eagerly read, and was found to give a most vivid and faithful picture of the manners, customs, habits, and amusements of the people in the time of Charles the Second. Pepys's diary has become one of the best known of English books.

5. While Pepys was writing daily in his diary two great misfortunes befell the people of London. Plague attacked the city, and fire almost burned it to the ground. Pepys first mentions the Great Plague on May 24, 1665. He writes : "The hottest day that ever I felt in my life. To the coffee-house, where all the news is of the plague growing upon us in this town, and of remedies against it ; some saying one thing, and some another." Then his references to it follow rapidly. On July 7, he writes : "This day, much against my will, I did in Drury Lane see two or three houses marked with a red cross upon the doors and 'Lord have mercy upon us' writ there, which was a sad sight to me, being the first of the kind that to my remembrance I ever saw." Those who were stricken with the disease began to shiver ; then they had headaches, and were light-headed. On the third or fourth day they fainted suddenly, and spots broke out on the breast. As soon as these appeared all hope was gone ; the poor victim was dead within an hour.

6. As we follow Pepys's pages we see alarm spreading, the clergy taking flight into the country, the stoppage of all work and trading, the grass growing in the streets, the bells tolling all the day long, the searchers going about

to discover houses infected with the plague, the dreaded death-carts rumbling through the streets, which echoed to the mournful cry, "Bring out your dead!" and then the hurried burial in great pits dug at St. Martin's-in-the-Fields and Mile End. It is a terrible picture, and we shudder as we realize it even to-day.

7. Pepys tells us a very sad story, which I think you will read with interest. When



SAMUEL PEPYS.

the plague was raging, no one was allowed to leave London, lest the disease should be spread over the country. A complaint was brought against a man for taking a child from an infected house, and the case was inquired into by the magistrates. They discovered that the child was the little daughter of a saddler. All his other children had died of the

plague, and the saddler and his wife were shut up in their house, never expecting to leave it alive. They had one wish in their despair, and that was to save the life of their little girl. At last they found a friend who promised to take her away from London. The child was let down from the window stark naked, and the friend, having dressed it in fresh clothes, took it to Greenwich, where, when the story was known, it was permitted to remain.



RESCUED FROM THE PLAGUE, LONDON, 1665.

(From the picture by Frank W. W. Topham, R.I. By permission of the Artist.)

8. Now let me tell you how the plague arose. London at this time was a very filthy place indeed. The streets were narrow, and so shut in that little light or air could get into them. There were no drains and no scavengers, and the whole city was a place of foulness and bad smells. Now, dirt, bad drainage, close streets, and lack of fresh air all invite disease. The plague was no new thing; it had visited England several times before the year 1665, and had carried off thousands of people. Twenty-nine years, however, had elapsed since the last great outbreak, and the people and their houses were as dirty as ever.

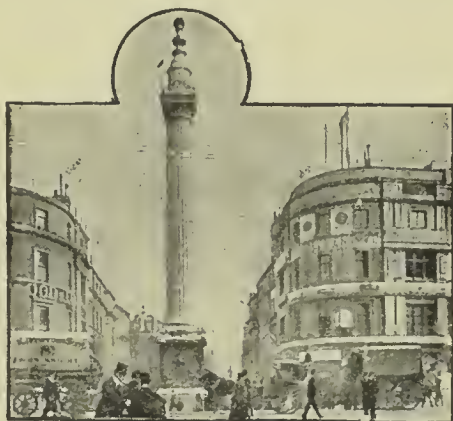
9. The same disease exists in our own day, and is called bubonic plague. It is produced by microbes which grow in filth, and live in the air, food, or water. They are frequently carried about by such creatures as rats and mice. The microbes are easily killed by exposure to fresh air and sunlight, but they flourish greatly wherever there are dirt and foulness. In our own country, where we believe in cleanliness and fresh air, the plague is easily stamped out. The doctors of those days, however, were quite baffled by the disease, and during the hot, dry summer its ravages were terrible. In all, the death-roll of the year reached nearly one hundred thousand, or about one-fifth of the total population. The worst time of all was in the first fortnight of September, when the deaths were over a thousand a day. As the summer passed and the cold, high winds of winter blew, the plague gradually passed away.

10. We will now go to Fish Street Hill in London and see a graceful column two hundred and two feet high. Climb the three hundred and forty-five steps to the top, and you

will have a grand view of the river and the great city. Now descend. Read the words carved on one side of the base of the monument. They tell you that the column was set up to remind people of the Great Fire of London, which took place in the year following the Great Plague.

11. This fire broke out at one o'clock on Sunday morning, September 2, 1666, at the house of a baker in Pudding Lane, close to the place where the monument now stands. Most of the city was then built of wood, and there was a high wind blowing at the time. The flames spread very quickly, and the citizens could do nothing to stop them. Before long most of the city was one sheet of flame.

12. A great terror seized the people, but as soon as they got over their fright they began removing their goods



THE MONUMENT.

to places of safety. Five, ten, and even fifty pounds were given for a cart. The barges and boats on the river were all laden with fugitives and their goods. The fields around London were full of furniture and of people camping out amidst their belongings. The fire continued to gain ground, and on Monday night the streets were as light as at noonday. The flames then reached St. Paul's. John Evelyn, a well-known writer of the time, and a keen observer, tells us in his diary that the stones flew like bombs, melting lead ran down the streets in streams, and the very pavements were red hot.

13. "God grant," says he, "my eyes may never behold the like. I now saw above ten thousand houses all in one flame. The noise and cracking and thunder of the flames, the shrieking of women and children, the hurry of people, the fall of towers, houses, and churches, was like an awful storm. The air was so hot that at last men were not able to approach the fire, and were forced to stand still and let the flames burn on, which they did for nearly two miles in length and one in breadth. The clouds of smoke were dismal, and reached nearly fifty-six miles in length. London was, but is no more !"

14. At last the fire was checked by blowing up a number of houses with gunpowder. The wind fell, and on Wednesday morning the fire ceased, "as it were, by a command from Heaven." Strange to say, having begun at Pudding Lane, it ended at Pie Corner. Actually, thirteen thousand houses and eighty-nine churches were burnt down, but only fourteen persons were killed. Every house and every building was destroyed over an area of four hundred and thirty-six acres.

15. The fire proved a blessing in disguise, for it swept away the foul courts and alleys which were little better than fever-dens. Wider and more open streets were built, and a number of stately new churches arose. The great architect Sir Christopher Wren rebuilt no fewer than fifty-four churches ; amongst them was St. Paul's Cathedral as we see it to-day.

38. THE NONCONFORMISTS.

1. Think of a Sunday morning in your town or village. When the church bells begin to ring, you see people dressed in their Sunday clothes making their way to the various places of worship. Some go to one church, some to another. Every man or woman chooses a form of religion and a place of worship for himself or herself, and no one has the shadow of a right to prevent them from doing so. You have never known anything different ; to you this freedom of worship is the most natural thing in the world. Nevertheless, it is comparatively modern. During the greater part of the period with which this book deals it simply did not exist.

2. In earlier times every member of the nation was supposed to belong, as a matter of course, to the National Church. If a man worshipped in a different way, he was supposed to commit a kind of treason and to deserve punishment. At the end of the sixteenth century rulers honestly believed that those of their subjects who did not hold the religious opinions of the Church established in the State ought to be punished, and, if still obstinate, put to death. The burnings and tortures so common in the reigns of Henry the Eighth, Mary, and Elizabeth, moved men to pity for the victims and to disgust at the cruel waste of life ; but they did not shock the conscience of the great bulk of the people.

3. Neither Protestant nor Catholic believed that a man ought to be allowed to choose his religion for himself, and practise it or not, just as he pleased. The Presbyterians in England and Scotland alike forced those who differed from

them to conform to their views; and even the Puritan Fathers, who crossed the Atlantic to win freedom of worship, would not allow it to others in the New World. Even as late as the end of the seventeenth century a great French writer truthfully said that both the Roman Catholic and the Protestant Church agreed that men who differed from them on religious matters ought to be punished.

4. During the Commonwealth the Church of England fell into the hands of the Puritans. The Prayer Book was forbidden, and those who went on using it were imprisoned. John Evelyn, of whom we read in the last lesson, tells us that on Christmas Day, 1657, he and a whole congregation were arrested in the midst of divine service because it was being conducted according to the Prayer Book.

5. The bishops were abolished, and the church buildings were declared to be the property of the nation. Thirty-eight "triers," as they were called, were chosen to select the ministers of the various parishes, and to turn out those who were of bad character or otherwise unsuitable. The "triers" only inquired into the personal piety and the ability of the ministers, and cared nothing for their views on doctrine or Church government so long as they were not Roman Catholic or Episcopalian—that is, those who held the old views about priests and bishops. As a consequence, a Presbyterian minister would be found in one parish, an Independent in the next, and a Baptist in a third.

6. If any person preferred to worship outside the National Church he was at liberty to do so, but this permission was not given either to Roman Catholics or to Episcopalians.



The Great Fire of London.

*(From the mural painting by Stanhope A. Forbes, R.A., in the
Royal Exchange, London.)*

Under this system many of the sects still in existence arose, amongst them the Quakers, who believed that God spoke directly to each person's soul, and that there was no need for any outward acts of worship at all. Their great leader was George Fox, who organized a band of sixty travelling preachers, and soon had a very large following.

7. With the Restoration a change came over the scene. The Episcopalians were eager to re-establish their power in the Church and to make it supreme in the land. They found a willing helper in the king's chief minister, Edward Hyde, Lord Clarendon, a writer and speaker of great power, who had fought for "martyred Charles," had been faithful to his son during exile, and was now reaping the fruits of his fidelity.

8. A Conference was called in 1661 at the Savoy Palace for the purpose of considering what could be done, by making changes in the Prayer Book, to keep the Puritans in the Church. The conference consisted of twelve bishops and twelve Puritan ministers, and, as might have been expected, it came to no agreement. A new Parliament was elected, and was found to be composed almost entirely of Cavaliers who were zealous for Church and king. This meant that the Church of England once more became supreme in the land. The Solemn League and Covenant which had been passed by Parliament in 1643, and signed by Charles in 1650, and again at his coronation, was burnt by the common hangman.

9. Parliament then proceeded to show a spirit of bitter enmity towards all "Nonconformists"—that is, those who would not adopt the Church of England form of

worship. A series of spiteful Acts, known as the "Clarendon Code," was passed, and the reason for these Acts was that the "Nonconformists" had been the chief supporters of the Commonwealth. The first of them was passed in 1661. It forbade any person to take part in the government of a town who would not do three things—renounce the Solemn League and Covenant, deny the lawfulness of taking up arms against the king, and take the Sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England.

10. This law was a terrible blow to the Presbyterians, who were all-powerful in most of the towns throughout the country. Unless they were willing to become members of the Church of England, they could no longer be mayors or town councillors, or hold any office under the corporations. This harsh and unfair Act created a great grievance, which continued down to the year 1828. Having thus driven Nonconformists out of local government, Parliament now proceeded to drive them out of the Church.

11. In 1662 the Act of Uniformity was passed. It declared that after three months no person might hold a living in the Church of England unless he had been ordained by a bishop, had taken the oaths according to the Act of 1661, publicly read the Prayer Book, and declared that he really believed in all which it contained. Now Charles, before returning to England, had promised that "no man shall be disquieted or called in question for differences of opinion in matters of religion;" and Clarendon, who felt some prickings of conscience, tried to bring about some arrangement in favour of the Puritan ministers who were actually holding livings in the Church. He failed to



The Fall of Clarendon.

secure any favour for them, and then the new Act was mercilessly carried into effect.

12. On St. Bartholomew's Day, 1662, about two thousand Baptist and Independent ministers who refused to "conform" were driven from their benefices, and went out into the highways and hedges. The Puritans were expelled not only from the Church but also from the universities and schools.

13. Parliament, having "purged" the town councils and the Church, now proceeded to persecute the Nonconformists. In 1664 it passed the "Conventicle Act," which forbade the holding of all religious services except those of the Church of England, under pain of fine and imprisonment. You have already heard of this Act in connection with John Bunyan. This shocking Act actually made family worship a crime if more than five persons not belonging to the family were present.

14. In the next year was passed the "Five Mile Act," which forbade ministers who had been expelled under the Uniformity Act from teaching in a school or living within five miles of a city or town with a corporation. The effect of the Clarendon Code was to drive large numbers of Nonconformists into the Church. By the end of the seventeenth century the Nonconformists did not number more than a fifth of the population.

39. THE FALL OF CLARENDON.

1. Look at the picture on page 222. It represents a scene which took place in the gardens of Whitehall during August 1667. On the left of the picture you see the king walking along a path towards the gate, and turning his back upon his old and tried minister Clarendon, who is descending the steps. Clarendon has just been dismissed from office, and has given up the Great Seal to the king. Observe the ill-concealed joy of the courtiers as they watch him leave Whitehall for the last time.

2. As you already know, Charles was a selfish, ungrateful, ill-living man, with one fixed idea in his mind—namely, that nothing should make him “go on his travels again.” In his private life he set his subjects the worst possible example. His Court was full of every kind of wickedness, and the offices of State were filled with his favourites. Charles was suspected of being a Roman Catholic, and of wishing to restore the old faith if he could do so without risking the loss of his throne. After the second Dutch war, in which England was covered with disgrace, Clarendon was made the king’s scapegoat. He was blamed, most unjustly, for all the disasters of the war, and Charles dismissed him without a word of regret.

3. The king was not sorry to say “good-bye” to Clarendon, who was really an honest man, and had taken him to task for the wickedness of his court. Clarendon had made himself disliked in a variety of other ways, but more especially by attempting to make Charles keep his promises. “He often said it was the making those promises which had brought

the king home, and the keeping them must keep him at home." Clarendon had many enemies at Court, and one of them used to whisper in Charles's ear, "There goes your schoolmaster."

4. Clarendon's fall was the signal for great rejoicing among the shameless crew which surrounded the king. As Clarendon, disgraced and abandoned, left Whitehall, Charles was told by a courtier "that this was the first time he could ever call him King of England, being freed from this great man." Clarendon took refuge at Rouen, and during the remaining seven years of his life finished his famous "History of the Rebellion," the most valuable of all the accounts which we possess of the Civil War.

5. "Freed from this great man," Charles began to descend deeper and deeper into the mire. He formed a ministry of his friends, and then made plans for ruling without a Parliament and restoring the nation to Rome, but without running undue risks. At this time the French king was Lewis the Fourteenth, one of the most ambitious men who ever sat on a throne, and the zealous champion of Catholicism. He dreamt of making himself master of Europe, and stamping out Protestantism altogether. He aimed his first blow at Holland.

6. In May 1670 Charles and Lewis secretly made what is known as the Treaty of Dover, by which France and England undertook to fight the Dutch, and share the Netherlands between them. There was a clause in the treaty by which Lewis promised to give £200,000 a year to Charles if the latter would do his best to restore the Roman Catholic religion in England. If rebellion broke

out, Charles was to have the aid of French troops to put it down. This shameful treaty was the first act of a drama which ended eighteen years later, when the Stuarts lost the throne for ever.

7. War was declared against Holland in 1672; and Charles issued a "Declaration of Indulgence," which suspended certain of the laws against the Nonconformists, both Protestants and Roman Catholics. Now this was an excellent thing in itself, but Charles had no right to alter the laws without the consent of Parliament. Protestants of all classes at once saw that Charles had only suspended the laws against the Nonconformists in order to favour the Roman Catholics.

8. A loud outcry went up, and Parliament passed the "Test Act," by which all persons holding office under the Crown were obliged to take the Sacrament according to the form of the Church of England. This Act prevented all Nonconformists, whether Protestants or Roman Catholics, from taking part in the government of the country. Two of the king's ministers and his brother James, Duke of York, were Roman Catholics, and they had therefore to give up their offices. To the disgust of Lewis, Charles agreed to this Act, and withdrew the Declaration of Indulgence. Had he not done so, it is probable that he would have gone on his travels again.

9. Meanwhile the Dutch, under the leadership of William, Prince of Orange, had driven back the forces of England and France; and the English Parliament, having learned something of the disgraceful secret treaty, demanded that peace should be made with Holland. This was done, and

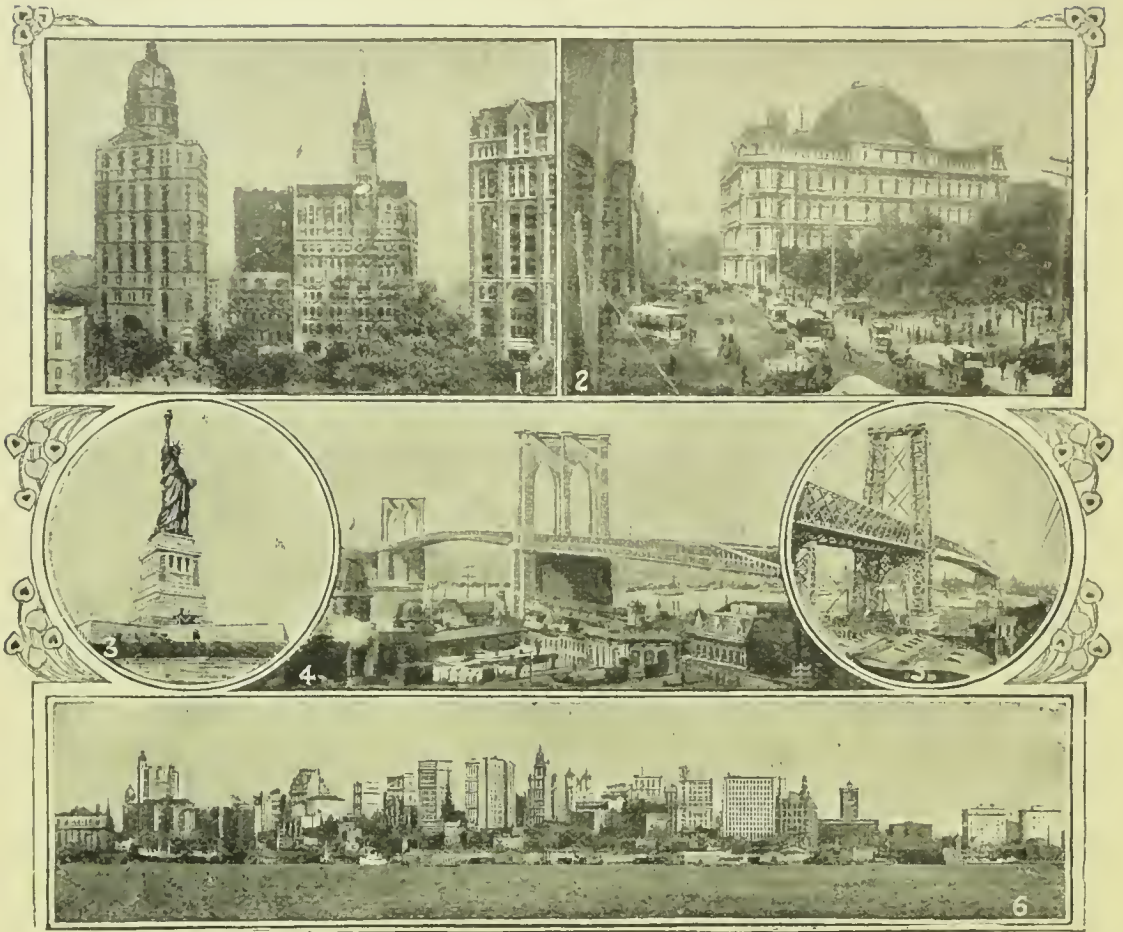
three years later (1677) William of Orange married Mary, niece of the king, and eldest daughter of James, Duke of York.

10. Soon afterwards Lewis made peace with Holland, and then the whole of the secret treaty became known. The anger and alarm of the nation were great, and a man came forward with the tale that he had proofs of a terrible Roman Catholic plot against the king and the nation. His stories were all lies, but they were generally believed.

11. However, a sort of panic followed, and many Roman Catholics were imprisoned and executed on the evidence of worthless informers. Roman Catholics were shut out of the House of Lords, and later on Parliament tried to pass a law that James, the king's brother, should be "excluded" from the throne after the death of Charles. There were very fierce disputes on this question, and civil war nearly broke out. Parliament, however, did not succeed in preventing James from coming to the throne.

12. On February 6, 1685, Charles lay dying, and was privately reconciled to the Roman Catholic Church, to which it had long been suspected he really belonged. One of his friends had previously suggested these not unsuitable lines for his tombstone :—

"Here lies our sovereign lord the king,
Whose word no man relies on ;
Who never said a foolish thing,
And never did a wise one."



SOME VIEWS IN NEW YORK.

1. *World, Times, and Tribune* buildings. 2. Post Office. 3. Statue of Liberty, New York harbour. 4. Brooklyn Bridge. 5. Brooklyn New Bridge. 6. Lower New York.

40. THE STORY OF NEW YORK.

1. To-day in imagination we will visit New York, the largest and wealthiest city of America. Nearly all the sea roads from the Old World and nearly all the land roads from the interior of the great continent lead to New York. It has long since overflowed Manhattan Island, on which it was originally built, and now spreads out far and wide on

both banks of the noble river Hudson. It is a vast city both in population and in extent.

2. This great, bustling metropolis, with its miles of streets, its soaring "sky scrapers," its palatial hotels, and its unlovely "elevated railways," stands second only to London amongst the cities of the world. As we contemplate it, we cannot fail to feel some satisfaction in the knowledge that it is mainly the work of men of British race. Strange as it may appear, its foundations were laid by the Dutch.

3. Though Holland is no longer a first-class Power, she once was mistress of the seas. It is not surprising that the Dutch are such excellent sailors. For ages they have fought the sea; for ages they have reaped its harvest for their livelihood. Their coast in many places is below the sea-level, and only by constant care and unremitting watchfulness can they keep back the devouring waves. The land is deeply trenched by large river-mouths, which have to be carefully embanked to resist the waters of high tides and the pressure of the winter's ice descending to the sea. The very highroads of the country are the rivers and canals. Always face to face with the sea as friend or foe, the people have naturally taken to a seafaring life.

4. In early times the Netherlands were part of the vast Empire of Charles the Great. Later on the land became split up amongst dukes, counts, lords, and bishops, who ruled over petty states like little kings. Gradually, however, these states became united into groups. Towards the end of the fourteenth century the Duke of Burgundy became Earl of Flanders (the country which we now call Belgium), and his grandson Philip managed to make himself King

of the Netherlands. After Philip came his son Charles, who succeeded to the kingdom of Spain as well, and afterwards became head of the Empire.

5. Charles ruled the Netherlands with a rod of iron ; but the Dutch were enabled to trade throughout his vast dominions, and thus laid the foundations of that extensive commerce which they still retain. When Charles “threw crowns for rosaries away” and retired to a monastery, his son Philip—who, as you know, was husband of Queen Mary and for a time King of England—treated the Dutch with the most merciless cruelty. They had become Protestants, and Philip was notably intolerant of the new opinions of his subjects. During his reign of terror it is said that he put to death many thousands of his Dutch subjects.

6. The people rose against him, and though terrible vengeance was taken on them, they continued the struggle until the Spanish yoke was thrown off for ever. Their chief leader was William the Silent, Prince of Orange, who took his title from the small French principality of Orange. Time after time he was defeated ; but the Dutch never lost heart, though they were often on the brink of despair. Once they actually had to cut the dikes and let in the sea to fight for them against their foes.

7. At last, in 1572, the year of the massacre of St. Bartholomew in France, a Dutch republic was formed, with William at its head ; but before the country was rid of the Spaniards, William was shot by an assassin in the pay of Philip. This was a terrible blow to the Dutch, but they were by no means cast down. They elected William’s son

as head of the republic, and continued the war. Four years later the Invincible Armada was scattered by English seamen, and Philip's power began to wane. Nevertheless, a long struggle followed; and when Philip died in 1609, Spain made a twelve years' truce with the Netherlands, during which Holland grew so rich and powerful that Spain no longer dared to attack her.

8. Holland now entered upon its golden age. Three years after James the First signed the charter of the Virginia companies Henry Hudson, an English sailor in the pay of the Dutch, sailed for the American coast. His ship, the *Half-Moon*, was a small, clumsy, high-pooed vessel, manned by a score of Dutch and English seamen. Early in September 1609 Hudson sailed into the mouth of a great lonely river flowing out of the heart of the unknown continent. He spent three weeks in exploring the river; and when he returned home the Dutch claimed all the country drained by the Delaware and Hudson Rivers. Traders from Holland arrived, the New Netherlands came into being, and New Amsterdam, now the city of New York, was founded on Manhattan Island.

9. The appearance of the Dutch in North America marks a great change in the relative positions of the five European states which were now seeking to establish empire in the New World. Spain still held vast possessions, but her power was already on the wane. Portugal had declined, and France was still struggling to found her great colony in Canada. The Dutch, however, had advanced greatly during their long war with Spain. They had obtained the control of the East Indies, and had founded an East India

Company. By the beginning of the seventeenth century Holland had become the leading colonial and sea power.

10. We are now to learn how the Dutch New Amsterdam became the British New York. As you already know, after the great Civil War a Commonwealth or republic was set up in England, with Oliver Cromwell at its head. Foreign Governments hated the Commonwealth, and in more than one court its envoys were badly treated, and at the Dutch Court two of them were actually murdered by English Royalists. The Dutch Government refused to give Cromwell any satisfaction for the outrage, and ill-feeling arose between the two countries.

11. Frederick Henry, the ruler of Holland, had married his son to the eldest daughter of Charles the First, and naturally his sympathies were with the Royalists. In various ways he had assisted them, and especially by sending supplies. But this cause of ill-feeling might have blown over had not Cromwell clearly perceived that Holland had now become our great rival both on the ocean and in America.

12. Holland carried the sea-borne commerce of half the world; and her colony of New Amsterdam thrust a wedge between the British colonies of New England on the north and Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland on the south. In 1651 Parliament passed the famous Navigation Act, which provided that all goods from abroad must come in English ships, or in the vessels of the actual country which grew or manufactured them. You can easily see that this was a great blow to the Dutch carrying trade. It was meant to provoke the Dutch, and it did so. War broke out in the following year.

41. NEW YORK AND BOMBAY.

1. 'The English navy at the time of the first Dutch War was comparatively small, and was assisted by merchant vessels. The Dutch navy, on the other hand, was the finest in the world. While England had few good admirals, Holland had a train of veterans who had won striking successes in the naval war with Spain. Heavily handicapped as she was, England nevertheless made a stout fight, and before the war was over she had a strong fleet and a roll of sea-heroes second to none. The English admiral was Robert Blake, an able and trustworthy man, and one of Cromwell's cavalry colonels. He speedily showed that he was every inch a sailor, and proved himself an admiral worthy to rank with the great Nelson himself.

2. The war was waged with the utmost gallantry and spirit on both sides, and England was not without her defeats. On one occasion, as you already know, the Dutch admiral Van Tromp forced Blake to retire, and then sailed the Channel with a broom at his masthead to indicate that he had swept the English from their own seas. Blake had his revenge in the next year, when he defeated the gallant Dutchman off the North Foreland, and again off the coast of Holland. In the latter fight Van Tromp was killed. The Dutch now sued for peace, and Cromwell, knowing that England needed rest, agreed, on condition that the Dutch should salute our flag in our own seas. Thus ended the first Dutch War.

3. Now we must pass on to the fifth year of the reign of Charles the Second. In the year 1665 England once

more went to war with Holland, for no good reason except that Charles wished to handle the money voted by Parliament to carry it on. He did his best to bring about defeat by squandering the money on his favourites, by choosing the wrong men as admirals, and by sending out leaky ships manned with hungry and unpaid sailors. A drawn battle was fought off Lowestoft in the first year of the war, but two years later "the roar of foreign guns was heard for the first and last time by the citizens of London."

4. De Ruyter burned Sheerness and the ships lying off Chatham, and even sailed up the Thames as far as Tilbury, that famous spot where Elizabeth, with the heart of a lion in her woman's body, had called upon her troops to repel the Spaniard in the hour of England's danger. While De Ruyter's ships were in the Thames, Charles was toying with his spaniels at Whitehall. Peace was concluded a week later.

5. The Dutch had been in peaceful possession of New Amsterdam for fifty years. Now, in a time of peace, the English Government suddenly discovered that New Amsterdam really belonged to England by right of an earlier discovery. Preparations were at once made for seizing it. Charles granted to his brother James, Duke of York, Lord High Admiral, a patent to certain lands in America, including the colony. For the purpose of capturing it a fleet of three ships, with ten guns and three companies of soldiers, was fitted out at Portsmouth. It reached New Amsterdam in July 1664, and found the place utterly unprotected. When the fleet arrived, the Dutch governor was absent fighting with the Indians. He hastened back with all speed, but could do nothing, and on the 29th of

August 1664 the British flag flew from the fort, and the city passed under English rule. Almost the first act of its new masters was to change the name of the city from New Amsterdam to New York in honour of Prince James.

6. The colony passed back to its original owners for a brief period during the third Dutch War, but in 1674 it was restored to England. Though the Dutch thus early lost their foothold in America, the descendants of the founders of New Amsterdam have played a large part in the national history, many of them being renowned as presidents, generals, statesmen, and men of letters of the United States. A Roosevelt, a Bayard, a Schuyler, and a Wendell were amongst the earliest settlers in what is now New York.

7. The capture of New Amsterdam marks a turning-point in the history of our colonial empire. With the loss of New Amsterdam, the efforts of Holland to establish colonies in the New World came to an end. Soon she became of little or no account, and France and Britain were left to struggle for world-empire. They were close neighbours in America, and very soon they were on the verge of war. The British colonies along the Atlantic seaboard, from Florida to Nova Scotia, were growing in population, and were pushing themselves further inland every year.

8. France had founded the magnificent colony which we now call Canada, and laid claim to the whole hinterland of North America. Had her claim been allowed, the British colonies would have been confined to a narrow strip of territory between the Alleghany Mountains and the Atlantic Ocean. When the period with which this book deals came

to an end, France and Britain were waiting the call to battle. You will learn in the next book how Britain conquered her rival, and became the greatest colonial power in the world.

9. Now let us turn for a moment to India, "the brightest jewel in the British crown." Here, too, England and France were also rivals for empire. The modern gateway to India is the seaport and manufacturing city of Bombay. If we visit Bombay, we shall find that it stands on a small island on the west or European side of the peninsula. The island is now joined to a larger island, and also to the mainland by causeways and railroads. Between the islands and the mainland is the magnificent harbour crowded with shipping.

10. The city itself contains a million souls, and is adorned with some noble public buildings. As we stand on the bungalow-strewn heights of Malabar Hill and look down on the city, let us recollect that the island of Bombay was the first portion of India to belong to the British crown. Its possession came about in the following way: in 1662 Charles the Second married Catherine of Braganza, a Portuguese princess, and she brought the island and the town of Bombay to her husband as part of her dowry.

11. You must not suppose that England had no dealings with India before Bombay belonged to her. Trade between this country and India had been going on for many years before the Portuguese princess became Queen of England. On the last day of the sixteenth century Elizabeth granted a charter to a company of London merchants, who began to trade with the East Indies. About 1624 the com-

pany was compelled by the Dutch to close its factories and withdraw from the East Indian Archipelago. Then it very wisely turned its attention to India.

12. This East India Company was founded solely for trade, and it stuck closely to business for many years. At the end of the seventeenth century it had four stations in the peninsula—Madras, Bombay, Fort St. David, and Fort St. William, where Calcutta now stands. The French East India Company began in a similar way, but its success was not great at first. Throughout the seventeenth century France made but little headway in India. Her great success and her overthrow, both in the New World and in India, were reserved for the eighteenth century.

42. SEDGEMOOR.—I.

1. To-day we will visit Bridgwater, an old Somersetshire town which stands some four miles from the scene of "the last fight deserving the name of a battle that has been fought on English ground." Bridgwater itself need not detain us long. It lies on both sides of the sluggish river Parret, some ten miles from its outlet in the Bristol Channel. Coasting craft sail up the river on the tide, and its mud makes the bath-bricks for which the town is noted.

2. Let us make our way to the parish church, which boasts a slim spire rising to a height of one hundred and seventy-four feet. We climb to the top of the square tower from which the spire ascends, and look out over a

flat expanse of fertile and well-wooded country, with the Mendip Hills to the north-east and the Quantocks to the south-west. Looking towards the south-east our eyes rest on Sedgemoor, which in earlier days was a dreary morass, but in the time of Charles the Second was partly reclaimed.

3. As we stand on Bridgwater Church tower we occupy the very coign of vantage from which the Duke of Monmouth, in the year 1685, observed through his telescope the position of the Royal army which he was to attack before the dawn of another day. Who was this Monmouth, and how came he to be in arms against the king?

4. Let us go back for a few moments to the reign of Charles the Second. I told you in the last lesson that the king's brother James was a Roman Catholic. Lord Shaftesbury, who was then leader of the opposition to the court party, feared that the Protestant faith would be in danger if James were to follow Charles as king. He and others wished to put on the throne the Duke of Monmouth, son of King Charles and Lucy Walters, the daughter of a Welsh Royalist. Shaftesbury and his friends, however, were unable to carry out their purpose, and on the death of Charles James became king.

5. At this time Monmouth was the most popular man in England. He was thirty-one years of age, extremely handsome, and gifted with the most charming manners. His father had given him all possible honours, and he had come to regard himself as heir to the throne. He had proved himself no mean soldier on the battlefields of the Netherlands, and in Scotland he had shown himself a



James II. receiving the News of the Landing of the Prince of Orange.
(From the picture by E. M. Ward, R.A., in the National Gallery of British Art.)



BRIDGWATER PARISH CHURCH.

merciful victor. He neglected no opportunity of making friends with the people. "He stood godfather to the children of the peasantry, mingled in every rustic sport, wrestled, played at quarterstaff, and won foot races in his boots against fleet runners in shoes."

6. His great claim, however, to the sympathy of the people was his staunch Protestantism. As a matter of fact, Monmouth had no settled religious opinions; he was by no means a good man, and his Protestantism was only a means to an end. He had taken part in a reckless plot towards the close of his father's reign, and had been obliged to take refuge in the Netherlands, with a sentence of death hanging over his head.

7. James began his reign by promising to "preserve the

government both in Church and State as by law established." There was no opposition to him in the country; men were ready to rely upon "the word of a king who was never worse than his word." They remembered his good work at the Admiralty, and his personal courage in the fights with the Dutch.

8. Really James was a stronger and better man than Charles; but while the late king was witty, gracious, good-natured, and easy-going, James was dull, suspicious, sullen, and silent. He was totally unable to forgive or forget, and was quite merciless. While Charles cared little for religion, James was a zealous Roman Catholic, who was prepared to risk his crown for the sake of his Church.

9. The Protestantism of the nation was soon alarmed. On February 12 the king openly heard mass, and a week or two later the rites of the Church of Rome, after an interval of a hundred and twenty-seven years, were once more performed at Whitehall. Then came a proclamation that the laws of the last reign against Nonconformists were suspended, and thousands of prisoners were released. Parliament, however, showed no anger, for it was largely packed with the king's friends. It granted the king a most liberal income, and voted that any person who attempted to put another king on the throne should be treated as a traitor.

10. Meanwhile Monmouth in Holland was busy hatching a plot to oust James and secure the throne for himself. His fellow-conspirator was Archibald Campbell, Earl of Argyll, the leader of the Scottish Presbyterians, better known as the Covenanters. In the lesson on the Nonconformists

I told you how harshly the Dissenters were treated in England during the reign of Charles the Second. In Scotland their case was far worse.

11. Two years after the Restoration the Episcopal form of worship was re-established in Scotland, and the Presbyterian ministers who refused to acknowledge the bishops were turned out of their churches. Severe laws were passed to punish those who dared to stay away from public worship in their own parish churches, and troopers rode about the country persecuting the people who would not conform.

12. Many of the ministers who had been turned out of their livings continued to preach in the open air, and the people flocked to hear them. Harsh laws were passed against these "conventicles;" nevertheless, they continued to increase in number. With a Bible in one hand and a weapon in the other, the blue-bonneted Covenanters gathered on lonely hillsides for worship, while scouts kept watch for the coming of the dreaded troopers. Persecution at last drove the Covenanters to arms. After a victory at Drumclog, they were utterly defeated at Bothwell Brig in the year 1679, and a terribly cruel time of shooting and hanging, torture and transportation set in.

13. Argyll's father had been the leader of the Covenanters in the days of Charles the First, and after the Restoration he was put to death. His son, the Earl of Argyll, Monmouth's fellow-conspirator, refused to take the oath of the Scotch Test Act without adding a statement that thereby he did not prevent himself from trying to amend both Church and State. For this he was brought

to trial, and on little or no evidence was condemned to death.

14. Argyll escaped in disguise to London, and made his way to Amsterdam, where the leading English and Scottish exiles were assembled. Though there was not much sympathy between Monmouth and Argyll, they joined hands, and arranged that Argyll was to go to the west coast of Scotland, rouse his clansmen, who were devoted to him, and seize the country. This rising was to be promptly followed by a descent upon England, led by Monmouth. The scheme was doomed to failure from the outset. In Book III. I told you how Argyll paid the price of his failure with his head.

43. SEDGEMOOR.—II.

1. Now let us see what progress Monmouth was making. On the morning of the 11th of June, 1685, a week before the capture of Argyll, three ships appeared off the little port of Lyme Regis, which lies midway between Portland Bill and the mouth of the river Exe. From these ships landed eighty well-armed men, led by Monmouth. As they stepped ashore he commanded silence, kneeled down, and asked a blessing on the venture in which he was now engaged. Then drawing his sword, he led his men over the cliffs into the little town.

2. At once there was great excitement in the place, and the fishermen came flocking to him, shouting, "A Monmouth! A Monmouth! The Protestant religion!" Meanwhile a blue flag had been set up in the market-

place, and a statement that Monmouth had come to free the nation from tyranny and Popery was read aloud.

3. The news spread like wildfire through the west. Many of the people were Dissenters who had suffered all sorts of petty persecution. These men hailed the advent of Monmouth with the utmost eagerness. They remembered how he endeared himself to them when he passed through the country in 1680, and they flocked with almost one accord to his banner. By the time he reached Chard many of the Devonshire peasants and artisans had gathered to welcome the "Protestant Duke." Recruits came in by hundreds daily ; arming and drilling went on all day.

4. On the 18th of June Monmouth reached Taunton, which is one of the pleasantest and most prosperous towns in the west of England. Taunton gave Monmouth a splendid welcome. Every door and window was adorned with wreaths of flowers. No man appeared in the streets without wearing in his hat a green bough, the badge of the popular cause. Damsels of the best families in the town wove colours for the rebels. One flag in particular was embroidered with the royal arms, and was offered to Monmouth by a train of young girls. The lady who headed the procession presented him also with a small Bible of great price. He took it with a show of reverence. "I come," he said, "to defend the truths contained in this book, and to seal them, if it must be so, with my blood."

5. Now let us hasten on the last chapter in this "strange, eventful history." We are now standing on Bridgwater Church tower where "King" Monmouth--

for he had already assumed the title—stood on the Sunday morning of July 5, 1685. The trainbands of the surrounding counties and the Life-guards were closing in upon him, and the royal army was daily drawing nearer and nearer. If victory was to be secured, a battle must be fought without delay.

6. Monmouth knew that his foes were encamped in the villages on Sedgemoor, and were rapidly drinking themselves drunk with Somerset cider. A night attack would find them heavy in sleep. He therefore determined that he would make a march under cover of the darkness that very night, and fall upon the surprised enemy before dawn.

7. By one o'clock in the morning of Monday, the 6th of July, the half-armed rabble was on the open moor. Between them and the enemy were three broad ditches or *rhines* full of mud and water. Monmouth knew of two of these ditches, and had planned the advance so as to cross them by the causeways. He was, however, ignorant of the third, and when his army reached its brink it was powerless to cross and attack the king's troops, who were only a few yards away.

8. A random pistol shot had already aroused the Royalists. "Boot and saddle" was sounded, and soon the cavalry, scrambling into order, found themselves near to the rhine which separated them from the enemy. "For whom are you?" called out an officer of the Foot-guards. "For the king," was the reply from the rebel ranks. "For which king?" was then demanded. The answer was a loud shout of "King Monmouth! God be with us!" The royal troops at once fired, and the rebel horse fled, and along

with them the drivers of the ammunition wagons with the powder and ball.

9. For a time the battle resolved itself into two rows of men shooting at each other across a broad trench of inky water. The unequal contest was soon decided, and Monmouth, seeing that all hope was gone, turned and fled. His deserted followers, however, made a gallant stand, but their scythes and pitchforks were useless against the swords of the king's troopers, and the arrival of the artillery brought the engagement to a speedy close. More than one thousand of the rebels lay dead on the field. Thus ended the last battle on English ground.

10. Then came the terrible reckoning. Monmouth, disguised as a shepherd, was discovered hiding in a ditch with a handful of raw peas in his pocket. He was taken to London, and in striking contrast with his fellow-conspirator Argyll, all his courage forsook him. James yielded to his piteous appeals and agreed to see him. Monmouth, with his arms fastened behind him with a silken cord, threw himself on the ground and crawled to the king's feet, begging for his life at any price. The stony-hearted king, however, refused to be moved, and Monmouth's head was struck from his body a few days later.

11. A brutal soldier named Kirke, who in the battle had commanded a regiment of equally brutal soldiers, took cruel vengeance on the rebels. You may still see at Taunton the house in which he lodged. It was formerly an inn, and on its signpost he hanged scores of peasants while his drums struck up and his officers drained their glasses. Then came Judge Jeffreys, a drunken, foul-mouthed wretch, who,

after trials which were mere mockeries, hanged three hundred and twenty persons, and transported many others to the West Indies.

12. Jeffreys openly boasted that he had hanged more traitors than all the chief-justices since the Conquest. Perhaps his most infamous sentence was that on Lady Alice Lisle, who had sheltered two fugitives from Sedgemoor. Jeffreys wished to burn her, but at last agreed to behead her instead. Not even the little girls who had presented the banner to Monmouth escaped. Two of them died in prison, and the rest were only released upon payment of a heavy ransom.

13. "No English sovereign has ever given stronger proofs of a cruel nature than James the Second." "His heart was as hard as the marble chimney-pieces of Whitehall." Monmouth's rebellion did not shake his throne, but the terrible vengeance which was wreaked on the poor misguided people of the west sent a thrill of horror through the whole country, and made men loathe his very name. Nevertheless, he stamped out all resistance, and his position was stronger than ever. In the next lesson we shall learn the story of his downfall.



44. "THE SEVEN LAMPS OF THE CHURCH."—I.

1. To-day we will again visit the Tower of London. We walk along the Embankment between its outer wall and the river, and pause to examine a wide archway closed by a pair of swing gates. This is the famous Traitor's Gate. Formerly the river lapped against the walls of the



TRAITOR'S GATE.

Tower, and boats could be rowed right through this archway into the fortress. Through this gloomy water passage countless prisoners of state have passed to long imprisonment in sunless dungeons and to the final scene on Tower Hill.

2. On Friday, June 8th, in the year 1688, a barge laden with prisoners, closely guarded by armed men, passed through Traitor's Gate amidst loud cries from the thronged river of "God bless your lordships." Who were these noble prisoners? They were no conspiring statesmen or rebellious soldiers, but the Archbishop of Canterbury and

six bishops of the Church. James the Second, rushing headlong to his doom, had seized them in his council chamber at Whitehall, and had committed them to the Tower.

3. They had passed to their barge on the river through crowds of Londoners, some of whom fell on their knees and thanked God that the spirit of Ridley and Latimer lived again, while others dashed into the stream and waded out through the ooze and water to give them a parting cheer. As the bishops stepped ashore, even the sentinels of the Tower begged a blessing ; and later in the day their guards drank their healths, and refused to drink any other. All day long the coaches of the first nobles of England were seen at the prison gates, and thousands of spectators covered Tower Hill. A crisis in the history of the nation had now arrived.

4. In order to explain this scene we must go back to the year following the Monmouth rebellion. James had overthrown his enemies both in England and in Scotland, and had punished them so severely that they no longer dared to oppose him. Parliament was his obedient tool, the judges were his creatures, and his income was greater than that of any former king. He now thought the time ripe for making himself an absolute king and giving freedom to the Roman Catholic religion—the two things upon which he had set his heart.

5. He first tried to secure the power of keeping in prison whomsoever he pleased just as long as he wished—that is, he endeavoured to get the Habeas Corpus Act repealed. This Act, which had been passed in the reign of his brother,

is one of the chief bulwarks of our liberty. It contains a principle far older than Magna Charta, which only restated the old law when it said, "To none will we sell, to none will we deny or delay, right or justice." The Tudors and Charles the First had thrust men and women into prison and kept them there without any intention of bringing them to trial. Sometimes they sent prisoners to the Channel Islands and other places beyond the sea, in order that they might be kept in prison at the royal pleasure.

6. The Habeas Corpus Act put an end to this illegal imprisonment altogether. The Latin words "Habeas Corpus" mean, "You may have the body." The Act ordained that a judge must give a prisoner an order to his jailer, calling upon the jailer to produce the prisoner's body in court, and to state the cause of his imprisonment, within twenty days. You can easily see that this Act made secret and illegal imprisonment impossible. The prisoner could insist on being brought to trial within a brief period, and the king could no longer keep persons in prison without the sentence of the ordinary courts of law.

7. James tried hard to get Parliament to do away with this law. The men who had reared up this great bulwark of liberty were Whigs—that is, those who believed Parliament should be supreme in the State; but now the Tories—that is, those who believed in the "divine right" of kings—were equally determined to stand by the law. Both parties united to resist the king, and he was forced to let the matter drop and proceed with another design—namely, to set up a great standing army which would enable him to overawe his subjects. At the time of

Monmouth's rebellion he had largely increased the regular forces of the country, and now he had nearly twenty thousand men under arms. Naturally, this force cost money to maintain, and James appealed to Parliament for £1,400,000.

8. Friendly as Parliament was to the king, it disliked this proposal greatly. Members recollected how, in the days of the Commonwealth, Cromwell had ruled by means of the army, and they were very unwilling to put such a weapon into the king's hands. Further, James had been breaking the Test Act by appointing large numbers of Roman Catholic officers to the command of the troops. This illegal favour which the king had shown to the Roman Catholics alarmed the Protestant mass of the people, and their alarm was increased by an event which just then took place in France. Lewis the Fourteenth now withdrew all the privileges which his Protestant subjects had enjoyed for eighty-seven years, and attempted to stamp Protestantism out of France.

9. For these and other reasons the Commons offered the king half the sum he asked for, and reminded him that he had broken the law in appointing Catholics as officers of the army. James sent a haughty message in reply, and put an end to the session of Parliament. He thus sacrificed the £700,000 which had been offered to him.

10. James now saw clearly that Parliament would not repeal the Test Act, so he determined to put into force an old claim of the Stuarts to override the law altogether. This was known as the "dispensing power," and by it the king claimed to give to any person freedom from the punishment attached to the breaking of the law. For instance,

he appointed a Roman Catholic named Sir Edward Hales to the command of one of his new regiments, and this officer, when tried for taking the office, pleaded that the king had relieved him of punishment for the offence.

11. The case was brought before the judges, who decided that the king had the right to "dispense" with the law at his pleasure. Armed with this decision, James now began to appoint Roman Catholics to high offices in every department of the State. They became judges, officers, sheriffs, lord-lieutenants, and mayors in defiance of the law.

12. Having "captured" the chief offices in the State, James now began to attack the Church of England. He appointed Roman Catholics as the heads of two Oxford colleges. The fellows of Magdalen College refused to receive the president whom James had chosen for them, and were expelled in a body, twelve Catholic fellows being appointed in their places. Laud's old Church Court was revived, and with the bloodthirsty Jeffreys at its head it began to threaten the clergy. Meanwhile a large army had been assembled on Hounslow Heath, and had been strengthened by the addition of several Irish regiments.

45. "THE SEVEN LAMPS OF THE CHURCH."—II.

1. The crisis came in the spring of 1688. The king now determined to suspend all laws against the Roman Catholics, but this he knew would set every Protestant in

the realm against him. He therefore tried to make friends with the Nonconformists, and thus secure their powerful aid in overthrowing the Church of England. On his own authority he issued a "Declaration of Indulgence," which suspended the laws against Roman Catholics and Dissenters alike, and allowed them to worship publicly and freely.

2. Of course, all laws which try to force people to worship in a particular way are thoroughly bad, and to do away with them is a wise and just act. But James had no right whatever to suspend the laws without the authority of Parliament, and the Dissenters knew perfectly well that the king was only giving them freedom of worship in order to pull down the Protestant Church of England and establish the Roman Catholic religion in its place. The great majority of the Nonconformists refused to help the king. They were Protestants first and Nonconformists afterwards.

3. James now ordered every clergyman in the land to read the Declaration of Indulgence from his pulpit on two successive Sundays. The bishops held a meeting at Lambeth Palace, and agreed to send a petition to the king pointing out that the Declaration was illegal, and begging to be excused from issuing it. The paper was signed by Archbishop Sancroft, and Bishops Lloyd of Saint Asaph, Turner of Ely, Lake of Chichester, Ken of Bath and Wells, White of Peterborough, and Trelawney of Bristol.

4. When the day for reading the Declaration came round the clergy almost to a man refused to do so. Where there was a weak-kneed or time-serving clergyman prepared to obey the royal order, the congregation rose and withdrew

at the first words. Samuel Wesley, the father of John and Charles Wesley, actually preached from the text, "Be it known unto thee, O king, that we will not serve thy gods, nor worship the golden image which thou hast set up."

5. A week later the king took the last and fatal step in his downward career. He resolved to bring the bishops to trial for libel—that is, for speaking evil of his character by sending him their petition. The charge was ridiculous, but for all that the bishops were brought before the council and browbeaten by the king. They refused to give way, and on the evening of the eighth of June he committed them to the Tower. Now you understand the meaning of the scene with which the last lesson opened.

6. The bishops were brought to trial at Westminster Hall on the 29th of June. From the landing-place they passed through a vast throng of spectators, who blessed and cheered them as they passed. The whole nation was in a fever of excitement. In Cornwall, where memories of the "Protestant Duke" still lingered, the peasants sang—

"And shall Trelawney die? and shall Trelawney die?"

Then thirty thousand Cornish boys will know the reason why."

7. The trial lasted all day, and evening had arrived when the jury retired to consider their verdict. They were locked up, and all night long they sat disputing. Nine were for acquitting and three for convicting. Two of the minority were won over, but a man named Arnold remained obstinate. A county gentleman named Austin was equally obstinate on the other side. "Before I find," said he, "such a petition as this a libel, here I stay till I am no

bigger than a tobacco pipe." The threat was sufficient, and the jury agreed.

8. At ten o'clock the next morning the court assembled. Amidst breathless silence the clerk of the court asked, "Do you find the defendants guilty or not guilty?" The foreman replied, "Not guilty!" When the news spread the nation went almost frantic with joy. Church bells rang merry peals, bonfires blazed, and even the soldiers on Hounslow Heath cheered themselves hoarse. James was a beaten man. In less than six months he was flying for his life to the court of the French king.

9. In the very month in which the bishops were acquitted a son was born to James, the prince who was afterwards known as the "Old Pretender." Before the birth of this child the Protestant Princess of Orange had been heir to the throne. Now the line of King James was to be continued, and this prospect filled the land with dismay. Before long a plot, which included men of both parties, was formed to overthrow the king. The Tories had stood by him as long as they possibly could; when the Church, which was more sacred to them than the crown, was threatened their loyalty vanished. An invitation was sent to Princess Mary and her husband, William of Orange, on June 30, 1688, asking them to come over and rule.

10. William was glad to come, and after issuing a declaration, in which he said he was coming to England with an army in order to secure a free Parliament, he landed at Torbay (November 5, 1688). On his way to London he was joined by many of the gentry; and as James

marched westward, whole companies and regiments of his soldiers deserted him and joined the enemy. Even the Princess Anne left her father's court and sought refuge at Nottingham. The king burst into tears when he heard the news. "God help me!" he cried in his misery; "my own children have forsaken me."

11. Seeing his army melting away, James returned to London, sent his wife and son off to France, and then tried to follow himself. On his way he was caught by some fishermen and brought back. No one wished to keep him a prisoner; indeed, every one wished to see him out of the country as soon as possible. He was therefore taken to Rochester, where he was allowed to escape to France (December 23, 1688).

12. By this time William was in London, and had called a meeting of peers and former members of Parliament. Some of the Tories wished to bring James back, if he would promise to govern better; others wanted William as regent; and others, again, thought that William's wife Mary, the daughter of James, should be queen. The two first plans were out of the question; and as for the third, William refused to be merely his wife's chief minister. At length it was decided that William and Mary should reign together as king and queen.

13. A Declaration of Right was drawn up. It gave a list of the illegal acts which James had done—such as suspending the laws, and keeping up a standing army in time of peace, without the consent of Parliament. The national rights and liberties—such as the right of sending a petition to the king, the calling together of frequent Parliaments,

and the rule that no Roman Catholic should sit on the throne of England—were stated anew.

14. William and Mary were offered the crown on condition that they would rule faithfully, according to the Declaration. “We thankfully accept,” replied William, speaking for himself and his wife, “what you have offered us.” Two months later William and Mary were crowned as joint-sovereigns. Thus the Revolution, or overturning of the Government, was carried out almost without bloodshed in England. Once more the people of England had asserted their right to choose their own king. “Divine right” was dead and buried, and Parliament had become supreme in the State.

46. LOOKING BACKWARD.

1. Before we close this book, let us glance back over the remarkable period of history which we have studied together. Two hundred years separate the accession of Henry the Seventh from the flight of James the Second, and two hundred years are but a brief space in the life-story of a nation. Nevertheless, the two centuries with which this book deals are by far the most important in all our history. In them we see our nation, as Milton saw it, “rousing herself like a strong man after sleep.”

2. With the accession of Henry the Seventh a new race of kings begins to rule England. The first Tudor sovereign finds the land crying aloud for peace after the murderous strife of the Wars of the Roses, a strife during which

the nobility has almost destroyed itself, and has thereby removed the only great check on the power of the king. The commons have been led by the nobles in the past, and they are not yet ready to act by themselves. Thus the new king is uncontrolled. He greedily grasps at power, and then begins a period of absolute rule such as England has never known before.

3. Meanwhile the education of the commons is beginning. The "new learning" from Greece and Rome opens up to them the boundless stores of ancient wisdom, and the new world-knowledge of the West fills their minds with eager curiosity. New ideas like winged seeds are in the air, and the new art of printing wafts them far and wide. Men are no longer willing to accept without question the teachings and authority of the Church. When Henry the Eighth quarrels with the Pope, the nation is eager to support him in breaking the connection with Rome. Under his son Edward the Sixth the Protestants gain the upper hand; under his daughter Mary the old faith is triumphant for a time; but in the "spacious days" of Elizabeth the Church of England is firmly established as a Protestant Church.

4. The new learning produces its finest flower in the splendid literature which is the greatest glory of Elizabeth's reign and a heritage for all succeeding ages. The "new worship" indirectly leads Drake and Hawkins and their fellow-buccaneers to the shores of the New World, where Spain holds sway. The "Spanish Main" becomes the training school of our sailors, and the "sea-dogs" show the way to the merchant adventurers who establish English trade throughout the known world. Feeble attempts at

colonization are made during the reign of the Virgin Queen ; and though they fail, we may see in them the beginnings of that mighty empire in which we rejoice to-day.

5. With the defeat of the Spanish Armada, launched against England by Spain, Britain begins to claim her title as Mistress of the Seas. As the years go by Spain gives place to Holland, which now becomes our great rival for colonial and sea power. National jealousy brings about a stubborn conflict with Holland, from which England emerges successful. Then France begins to assert herself as an even more dangerous rival. When the seventeenth century closes France and England are on the eve of a long and fateful struggle for empire.

6. A hundred and eighteen years after the election of the first Tudor sovereign his direct line fails, and the first Stuart king, a Scotsman by birth and education, becomes King of Great Britain and Ireland. The union of England and Scotland under one king comes about by a happy accident, and it has continued ever since. The real union—that of the Parliaments of the two countries—is the work of the early eighteenth century.

7. With the accession of James the First, we see the beginnings of that contest between monarch and people which decides for all time the great question, Who shall rule—King or Parliament ? The commons have now become strong and intelligent, and they are fitted in every way for the task of self-government. Unhappily they are now ruled by a race of stubborn monarchs, who cannot or will not recognize that the day of absolute kings has gone by

for ever. Firmly attached to the belief in their divine right to rule, the Stuarts challenge the people to a duel, which lasts, with an interval of eleven years, from the death of Elizabeth to the day when the nation finally rejects James the Second.

8. The first two Stuarts aim at making themselves absolute alike in Church and State. They deny the rights of the people, and endeavour to rule unchecked by Parliament. The spirit of the time is against them. The great revolt from Rome and the spread of Protestantism have produced the Puritans, men who will not abase themselves to king or priest. The Puritans are bitterly persecuted, and tens of thousands of them shake off the dust of their native land, and give the New World exactly what it needs—a race of stern, independent, sober-minded men and women. Those who remain acquire great power in Parliament, and become leaders in the great movements which follow. James the First dies, leaving his people angry and defiant; his son Charles the First goads them into rebellion. Civil war breaks out, and after seven years of warfare the king is tried by his subjects, found guilty, and beheaded.

9. The army which has defeated the Royalists is now supreme; it abolishes the kingship and sets up a republic. Only a minority of the nation, however, supports the “Commonwealth,” with Oliver Cromwell at its head. He tries hard to give the people honest government and religious liberty; but the army is his master, and he is forced to become just as absolute as “martyred Charles.” Nevertheless, his government is very efficient; capable men are placed at the head of affairs, and England becomes great

and wealthy. At the same time she is discontented and unhappy ; the gay, free life of earlier days has been crushed out under the iron heel of Puritan rule. The Maypole is no longer set up in the villages ; there are no happy holidays, no sports, no festivities.

10. Cromwell has built his power on the sand, and with his death every sign of it speedily passes away. In little more than a year the nation joyfully greets the restoration of the Stuart rule. Then all that is good as well as all that is harsh and unlovely in Puritanism is trampled under foot. The court is full of wickedness ; national money is squandered on the king's pleasures ; the government is thoroughly bad ; the king sells himself to Lewis of France, and in a half-hearted way tries to set up the Roman Catholic religion again. He fails hopelessly, but does not abandon his design to the day of his death.

11. Then comes the last Stuart king who will ever sit on the British throne. James the Second speedily reveals the great ambition of his life—namely, to restore his land to the Roman Catholic faith. He is tactless and stupid, “stiff in opinion, and always in the wrong.” In less than three years he drives the whole nation into opposition ; he has not a faithful friend on English soil. Whigs and Tories alike invite William of Orange to come over and defend the liberties of England. He does so, and James flies the country, feebly wondering what he has done to deserve such an untoward fate. The two Houses of Parliament then unite in offering the throne to William and his wife Mary, eldest daughter of the runaway king, on certain well-defined conditions. The offer is accepted, and the

Revolution is complete almost without the shedding of one drop of blood.

12. To this Revolution England has been slowly tending during the two centuries which we have studied in this book. Under absolute kings the commons have gathered strength; under unwise kings they have asserted that strength; and now they have made themselves supreme in the State. "The old order changeth, giving place to new." The king retains his name and title, together with certain powers which make for steady and orderly government, but henceforward he and not Parliament must give way in a matter of dispute between them. Parliament, and more especially the House of Commons, is now the chief power in the land. The struggle for mastery between king and people has ended; the question, Who shall rule? has been answered once for all, and the nation goes forward, secure in its freedom, to the prosperity of later ages.

Poetry for Recitation.

I. WOLSEY'S FALL.

[Shakespeare puts the following into the mouth of Wolsey as he feels his death fast approaching. See Lesson 7.]

Cromwell. The Lady Anne,
Whom the king hath in secrecy long married,
This day was viewed in open as his queen,
Going to chapel; and the voice is now
Only about her coronation.

Wolsey. There was the weight that pulled me down.
O Cromwell,
The king has gone beyond me ; all my glories
In that one woman I have lost for ever :
No sun shall ever usher forth mine honours,
Or gild again the noble troops that waited
Upon my smiles. Go, get thee from me, Cromwell ;
I am a poor fall'n man, unworthy now
To be thy lord and master. Seek the king :
That sun, I pray, may never set ! I have told him
What and how true thou art : he will advance thee ;
Some little memory of me will stir him—
I know his noble nature—not to let
Thy hopeful service perish too : good Cromwell,

Neglect him not ; make use now, and provide
For thine own future safety.

Crom. O my lord,
Must I then leave you ? must I needs forego
So good, so noble, and so true a master ?
Bear witness, all that have not hearts of iron,
With what a sorrow Cromwell leaves his lord.
The king shall have my service ; but my prayers
For ever and for ever shall be yours.

Wol. Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear
In all my miseries ; but thou hast forced me,
Out of thy honest truth, to play the woman.
Let's dry our eyes : and thus far hear me, Cromwell ;
And, when I am forgotten, as I shall be,
And sleep in dull cold marble, where no mention
Of me more must be heard of, say, I taught thee,—
Say, Wolsey, that once trod the ways of glory,
And sounded all the depths and shoals of honour,
Found thee a way, out of his wreck, to rise in ;
A sure and safe one, though thy master missed it.
Mark but my fall, and that that ruined me.
Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition :
By that sin fell the angels ; how can man then,
The image of his Maker, hope to win by it ?
Love thyself last ; cherish those hearts that hate thee :
Corruption wins not more than honesty.
Still in thy right hand carry gentle peace,
To silence envious tongues. Be just, and fear not ;
Let all the ends thou aim'st at be thy country's,
Thy God's, and truth's : then if thou fall'st, O Cromwell,

Thou fall'st a blessèd martyr ! Serve the king ;
And—prithee, lead me in :
There take an inventory of all I have,
To the last penny ; 'tis the king's : my robe,
And my integrity to heaven, is all
I dare now call mine own. O Cromwell, Cromwell
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, He would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE
(*King Henry VIII.*, Act iii. Sc. 2).

2. A PROPHECY.

[*The following extract is the prophecy of Archbishop Cranmer at the time of the infant Elizabeth's christening.*]

The words I utter
Let none think flattery, or they'll find them truth.
This royal infant—Heaven still move about her !—
Though in her cradle, yet now promises
Upon this land a thousand thousand blessings,
Which time shall bring to ripeness. She shall be
(But few now living can behold that goodness)
A pattern to all princes living with her,
And all that shall succeed : Saba was never
More covetous of wisdom and fair virtue
Than this pure soul shall be : all princely graces,
That mould up such a mighty piece as this is,
With all the virtues that attend the good,
Shall still be doubled on her : truth shall nurse her,

Holy and heavenly thoughts still counsel her :
She shall be loved and feared : her own shall bless her ;
Her foes shake like a field of beaten corn,
And hang their heads with sorrow : good grows with her :
In her days every man shall eat in safety,
Under his own vine, what he plants, and sing
The merry songs of peace to all his neighbours :
God shall be truly known ; and those about her
From her shall read the perfect ways of honour,
And by those claim their greatness, not by blood.
She shall be, to the happiness of England,
An aged princess ; many days shall see her,
And yet no day without a deed to crown it.
Would I had known no more ! but she must die—
She must, the saints must have her ; yet a virgin,
A most unspotted lily shall she pass
To the ground, and all the world shall mourn her.

SHAKESPEARE (*Henry VIII.*).

3. THE ARMADA.*

[*The following verses of Lord Macaulay describe the manner in which the signal war-flame announcing the coming of the Armada sped over the land from "Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford Bay."*]

Attend, all ye who list to hear our noble England's praise ;
I tell of the thrice-famous deeds she wrought in ancient days,
When the great fleet invincible against her bore in vain
The richest spoils of Mexico, the stoutest hearts of Spain.

* A map of England should be consulted in reading this poem.

It was about the lovely close of a warm summer's day,
There came a gallant merchant-ship full sail to Plymouth
Bay ;

Her crew hath seen Castile's black fleet beyond Aurigny's
isle,

At earliest twilight, on the waves lie heaving many a mile.
At sunrise she escaped their van, by God's especial grace ;
And the tall *Pinta*, till the noon, had held her close in chase.
Forthwith a guard at every gun was placed along the wall ;
The beacon blazed upon the roof of Edgecumbe's lofty
hall ;

Many a light fishing-bark put out to pry along the coast,
And with loose rein and bloody spur rode inland many a
post.

With his white hair unbonneted, the stout old sheriff comes ;
Behind him march the halberdiers, before him sound the
drums ;

His yeomen round the market cross make clear an ample
space,

For there behoves him to set up the standard of Her Grace.
And haughtily the trumpets peal, and gaily dance the bells,
As slow upon the labouring wind the royal blazon swells.

Look how the Lion of the sea lifts up his ancient crown,
And underneath his deadly paw treads the gay lilies down.
So stalked he when he turned to flight, on that famed Picard
field,

Bohemia's plume, and Genoa's bow, and Cæsar's eagle shield ;
So glared he when at Agincourt in wrath he turned to bay,
And crushed and torn beneath his claws the princely hunters
lay.

Ho! strike the flagstaff deep, Sir Knight; ho! scatter
flowers, fair maids;

Ho! gunners, fire a loud salute; ho! gallants, draw your
blades:

Thou sun, shine on her joyously; ye breezes, waft her wide—
Our glorious SEMPER EADEM, the banner of our pride.

The freshening breeze of eve unfurled that banner's massy
fold,

The parting gleam of sunshine kissed that haughty scroll of
gold;

Night sank upon the dusky beach, and on the purple sea—
Such night in England ne'er had been, nor e'er again shall be.
From Eddystone to Berwick bounds, from Lynn to Milford
Bay,

That time of slumber was as bright and busy as the day;
For swift to east and swift to west the ghastly war-flame
spread;

High on St. Michael's Mount it shone—it shone on Beachy
Head.

Far on the deep the Spaniard saw, along each southern shire,
Cape beyond cape, in endless range, those twinkling points
of fire.

The fisher left his skiff to rock on Tamar's glittering waves,
The rugged miners poured to war from Mendip's sunless
caves.

O'er Longleat's towers, o'er Cranbourne's oaks, the fiery
herald flew;

He roused the shepherds of Stonehenge, the rangers of
Beaulieu.

Right sharp and quick the bells all night rang out from
Bristol town,

And ere the day three hundred horse had met on Clifton
down.

The sentinel on Whitehall gate looked forth into the night,
And saw o'erhanging Richmond Hill the streak of blood-red
light ;

Then bugle's note and cannon's roar the deathlike silence
broke,

And with one start and with one cry the royal city woke.

At once on all her stately gates arose the answering fires ;

At once the wild alarum clashed from all her reeling spires ;

From all the batteries of the Tower pealed loud the voice
of fear,

And all the thousand masts of Thames sent back a louder
cheer ;

And from the farthest wards was heard the rush of hurrying
feet,

And the broad streams of pikes and flags rushed down each
roaring street.

And broader still became the blaze, and louder still the din,

As fast from every village round the horse came spurring in ;

And eastward straight from wild Blackheath the warlike
errand went,

And roused in many an ancient hall the gallant squires of
Kent.

Southward from Surrey's pleasant hills flew those bright
couriers forth ;

High on bleak Hampstead's swarthy moor they started for
the North ;

And on, and on, without a pause, untired they bounded still ;
 All night from tower to tower they sprang—they sprang
 from hill to hill,
 Till the proud Peak unfurled the flag o'er Darwin's rocky
 dales,
 Till like volcanoes flared to heaven the stormy hills of Wales,
 Till twelve fair counties saw the blaze on Malvern's lonely
 height,
 Till streamed in crimson on the wind the Wrekin's crest
 of light,
 Till broad and fierce the star came forth on Ely's stately fane,
 And tower and hamlet rose in arms o'er all the boundless
 plain ;
 Till Belvoir's lordly terraces the sign to Lincoln sent,
 And Lincoln sped the message on o'er the wide vale of Trent ;
 Till Skiddaw saw the fire that burned on Gaunt's embattled
 pile,
 And the red glare on Skiddaw roused the burghers of Carlisle.

LORD MACAULAY.

4. SIR RICHARD GRENVILLE'S LAST FIGHT.

[The fight between the little "Revenge" and fifty-three Spanish men-of-war occurred off the Azores in 1591. "From the greatness of his spirit," says Raleigh, "Sir Richard Grenville utterly refused to turn from the enemy, protesting he would rather die than be guilty of such dishonour to himself, his country, and Her Majesty's ship."]

1. Our second Richard Lion-Heart,
 In days of great Queen Bess,
 He did this deed of righteous rage,
 And true old nobleness,

- With wrath heroic that was nurst
To bear the fieriest battle-burst,
When willing foes should wreak their worst.
2. Signalled the English admiral,
“ Weigh or cut anchors.” For
A Spanish fleet bore down in all
The majesty of war,
Athwart our tack for many a mile,
As there we lay off Florez Isle,
Our crews half sick, all tired of toil.
3. Eleven of our twelve ships escaped—
Sir Richard stood alone !
Though they were three-and-fifty sail—
A hundred men to one—
The old sea-rover would not run,
So long as he had man or gun ;
But he could die when all was done.
4. The deck was cleared, the boatswain blew,
The grim sea-lions stand,
The death-fire lit in every eye,
The burning match in hand.
With mail of glorious intent
All hearts were clad ; and in they went—
A force that cut through where 'twas sent.
5. “ Push home, my hardy pikemen,
For we play a desperate part ;
To-day, my gunners, let them feel
The pulse of England's heart.

They shall remember long that we
Once lived, and think how shamefully
We shook them—one to fifty-three.”

6. They clasp the little ship *Revenge*,
As in the arms of fire ;
They run aboard her, six at once :
Hearts beat and guns leap higher.
Through bloody gaps the boarders swarm ;
But still our English stay the storm—
‘The bulwark in their breast is firm.
7. Ship after ship, like broken waves
That wash up on a rock,
Those mighty galleons fall back foiled
And shattered from the shock.
With fire she answers all their blows ;
Again, again in pieces strows
The burning girdle of her foes.
8. Some know not they are wounded
Till ’tis slippery where they stand ;
Some with their own good blood make fast
The pike-staff to their hand.
Wild faces glow through lurid night,
With sweat of spirit shining bright :
Only the dead on deck turn white.
9. At daybreak the flame-picture fades
In blackness and in blood ;
There, after fifteen hours of fight,
The unconquered sea-king stood,

Defying all the power of Spain—
Fifteen Armadas hurled in vain,
And fifteen hundred foemen slain.

10. Around that little bark *Revenge*
The baffled Spaniards ride
At distance. Two of their good ships
Were sunken at her side;
The rest lie round her in a ring,
As round the dying lion-king
The dogs, afraid of his death-spring.
11. Our pikes all broken, powder spent;
Sails, masts to shivers blown;
And with her dead and wounded crew
The ship was going down!
Sir Richard's wounds were hot and deep;
Then cried he with a proud pale lip:
"Ho, Master-Gunner, sink the ship.
12. "Make ready, now, my mariners,
To go aloft with me,
That nothing to the Spaniard
May remain of victory.
They cannot take us, nor we yield;
So let us leave our battlefield
Under the shelter of God's shield."
13. They had not heart to dare fulfil
The stern commander's word;
With bloody hands and weeping eyes
They carried him aboard

The Spaniard's ship ; and round him stand
The warriors of his wasted band.
Then said he, feeling death at hand :

14. " Here die I, Richard Grenville,
With a joyful and quiet mind.
I reach a soldier's end, I leave
A soldier's fame behind,
Who for his Queen and country fought,
For honour and religion wrought,
And died as a true soldier ought."

GERALD MASSEY.

5. THE PILGRIM FATHERS, 1620.

(*See Lesson 25, page 139.*)

1. The breaking waves dashed high
On a stern and rock-bound coast ;
And the woods, against a stormy sky,
Their giant branches tossed.
2. And the heavy night hung dark
The hills and waters o'er,
When a band of exiles moored their bark
On the wild New England shore.
3. Not as the conqueror comes,
They, the true-hearted, came—
Not with the roll of the stirring drums,
And the trumpet that sings of fame ;

4. Not as the flying come,
In silence and in fear ;—
They shook the depths of the desert's gloom
With their hymns of lofty cheer.
5. Amidst the storm they sang,
Till the stars heard, and the sea ;
And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang
To the anthems of the free.
6. The ocean eagle soared
From his nest by the white wave's foam,
And the rocking pines of the forest roared :—
Such was their welcome home !
7. There were men with hoary hair
Amidst that pilgrim band :
Why had they come to wither there,
Away from their childhood's land ?
8. There was woman's fearless eye,
Lit by her deep love's truth ;
There was manhood's brow serenely high,
And the fiery heart of youth :
9. What sought they thus afar ?—
Bright jewels of the mine ?
The wealth of seas ? the spoils of war ?
No ; 'twas a faith's pure shrine !
10. Yes, call it holy ground,
Which first their brave feet trod !
They have left unstained what there they found—
Freedom to worship God !

FELICIA HEMANS.

6. THE OLD CAVALIER.

[Nothing in the whole range of English history is finer than the loyalty and devotion of the Cavaliers to the losing cause of the Stuarts; and nothing is sadder than the ungrateful return they received at the hands of Charles the Second when he was restored to the throne of his fathers (1660).]

1. For our martyred Charles I pawned my plate,
For his son I spent my all,
That a churl might dine, and drink my wine,
And preach in my father's hall.
That father died on Marston Moor,
My son on Worcester plain:
But the king he turned his back on me
When he got his own again.
2. The other day, there came, God wot,
A solemn, pompous ass,
Who begged to know if I did not go
To the sacrifice of Mass.
I told him fairly to his face
That in the field of fight
I had shouted loud for Church and King,
When he would have run outright.
3. He talked of the Man of Babylon
With his rosaries and copes,
As if a Roundhead wasn't worse
Than half a hundred Popes.
I don't know what the people mean,
With their horror and affright;
All Papists that I ever knew
Fought stoutly for the right.

4. I now am poor and lonely,
 This cloak is worn and old,
But yet it warms my loyal heart
 Through sleet, and rain, and cold,
When I call to mind the Cavaliers,
 Bold Rupert at their head,
Bursting through blood and fire, with cries
 That might have waked the dead.
5. Then spur and sword was the battle-word,
 And we made their helmets ring,
Howling like madmen all the while
 For God and for the King.
And though they snuffed psalms, to give
 The rebel-dogs their due,
When the roaring shot poured close and hot,
 They were stalwart men and true.
6. On the fatal field of Naseby,
 Where Rupert lost the day
By hanging on the flying crowd
 Like a lion on his prey,
I stood and fought it out until,
 In spite of plate and steel,
The blood that left my veins that day
 Flowed up above my heel.
7. And certainly it made those quail
 Who never quailed before,
To look upon the awful front
 Which Cromwell's horsemen wore.

I felt that every hope was gone
When I saw their squadrons form
And gather for the final charge,
Like the coming of the storm.

8. Oh ! where was Rupert in that hour
Of danger, toil, and strife ?
It would have been to all brave men
Worth a hundred years of life
To have seen that black and gloomy force,
As it poured down in line,
Met midway by the royal horse
And Rupert of the Rhine.

9. All this is over now, and I
Must travel to the tomb,
Though the king I served has got his own,
In poverty and gloom.
Well, well, I served him for himself,
So I must not now complain,
But I often wish that I had died
With my son on Worcester plain.

SIR F. H. DOYLE.

7. THE DUKE OF YORK'S VICTORY OVER THE DUTCH, 1672.

[During the Commonwealth war broke out with the Dutch, our great naval rivals. Admiral Blake, after being beaten by Van Tromp, defeated and destroyed the Dutch fleet. The heroic deeds of Admiral Blake were not repeated in the time of Charles the Second, but this was not the fault of the officers and men, but of the statesmen and the king, who neglected and starved the fleet. The roar of

foreign guns was heard in London (1667); but later on, when the Duke of York, afterwards James the Second, became admiral, better times came, and the Dutch were met and defeated off the coast of Suffolk (1672). The following poem commemorates the victory.]

1. One day, as I was sitting still
Upon the side of Dunwich Hill,
And looking on the ocean,
By chance I saw De Ruyter's fleet
With royal James's squadron meet;
In sooth it was a noble treat
To see that brave commotion.
2. I cannot stay to name the names
Of all the ships that fought with James,
Their number or their tonnage;
But this I say, the noble host
Right gallantly did take its post,
And covered all the hollow coast
From Walderswyck to Dunwich.
3. The French, who should have joined the Duke,
Full far astern did lag and look,
Although their hulls were lighter;
But nobly faced the Duke of York:
Though some may wink and some may talk,
Right stoutly did his vessel stalk
To buffet with De Ruyter.
4. Well might you hear their guns, I guess,
From Sirewell-gap to Easton Ness—
The show was rare and sightly.

They battered without let or stay
 Until the evening of that day.
 'Twas then the Dutchmen ran away ;
 The Duke had beat them tightly.

5. Of all the battles gained at sea,
 This was the rarest victory
 Since Philip's grand Armado.
 I will not name the rebel Blake :
 He fought for old Noll Cromwell's sake,
 And yet was forced three days to take
 To quell the Dutch bravado.
6. So now we've seen them take to flight,
 This way or that, where'er they might,
 To windward or to leeward,
 Here's to King Charles, and here's to James,
 And here's to all the captains' names,
 And here's to all the Suffolk dames,
 And here's the House of Stuart !

From the "Suffolk Garland."

8. THE SONG OF THE WESTERN MEN.

[See Lesson 45.]

1. A good sword and a trusty hand,
 A merry heart and true :
 King James's men shall understand
 What Cornish lads can do.

2. And have they fixed the where and when?
And shall Trelawney die?
Here's twenty thousand Cornish men
Will know the reason why!
3. Out spake their captain brave and bold,
A merry wight was he:
"If London Tower were Michael's hold,
We'll set Trelawney free!
4. "We'll cross the Tamar, land to land—
The Severn is no stay—
With 'one and all,' and hand in hand,
And who shall bid us nay?
5. "And when we come to London Wall,
A pleasant sight to view,
Come forth! come forth! ye cowards all;
Here's men as good as you.
6. "Trelawney he's in keep and hold,
Trelawney he may die;
But here's twenty thousand Cornish bold
Will know the reason why!"

HAWKER.

SUMMARY OF BRITISH HISTORY, WITH DATES.

- 1485.** Henry of Richmond defeated and slew Richard the Third at **Bosworth Field**.
Henry **elected** king by Parliament. (Lesson 1, par. 4.)
- 1486.** Henry married **Elizabeth of York**, daughter of Edward the Fourth, and the claims of the rival houses were blended. (Lesson 1, par. 8.)
- 1486-1487.** **Lambert Simnel** personated the young Earl of Warwick. He was crowned in Dublin, and defeated at **Stoke**, near Newark. (Lesson 1, pars. 9, 10.)
- 1487.** **Star Chamber** established. (Lesson 2, par. 4.)
- 1492-1499.** **Perkin Warbeck** personated Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the princes murdered in the Tower. He invaded Cornwall in 1497, and was executed in 1499. (Lesson 1, pars. 11, 12.)
- 1492.** **Columbus** discovered **America**. (Lesson 3, pars. 6-8.)
- 1494.** **Poynings' Acts** passed. (Lesson 29, par. 4.)
- 1497.** The **Cabots** discovered **Labrador**. (Lesson 3, pars. 10-14.)
- 1501.** Marriage of **Prince Arthur** with **Catherine of Aragon**. (Lesson 7, par. 11.)
- Extortions** of Empson and Dudley. (Lesson 2, par. 5.)
- 1509.** **Death of Henry the Seventh.** Accession of **Henry the Eighth**.
Foundation of **St. Paul's School**. (Lesson 4, par. 1.)
- 1513.** **Battle of Spurs.** (Lesson 6, par. 2.) **Battle of Flodden.** (Lesson 6, par. 2.)
- 1515.** **Wolsey a cardinal.** (Lesson 6, par. 6.)
- 1518.** **Wolsey papal legate.** (Lesson 6, par. 6.)
- 1519.** **Charles the Fifth** became **Emperor**. (Lesson 6, par. 10.)
- 1520.** **Field of the Cloth of Gold.** (Lesson 6, pars. 13, 14.)
Luther at Wittenberg. (Lesson 7, pars. 7-9.)
- 1521.** **Henry, Defender of the Faith.** (Lesson 7, par. 10.)
- 1523.** Parliament called; which granted only half the king's demands. (Lesson 6, pars. 17, 18.)

1525. Battle of **Pavia** and capture of Francis the First. (Lesson 6, pars. 18-20.)
1527. Henry took steps to be **divorced**. (Lesson 7, pars. 12, 13.)
1529. **The Trial**. (Lesson 7, par. 14.)
1530. Wolsey's **Fall and Death**. (Lesson 7, par. 16.)
1531. **Clergy fined** for recognizing Wolsey as legate. (Lesson 8, par. 5.)
1533. **Cranmer** archbishop. (Lesson 8, pars. 3, 4.) Henry married **Anne Boleyn**. **Thomas Cromwell** the king's adviser. (Lesson 8, par. 9.)
1534. **Henry declared Head of the Church**. (Lesson 8, par. 10.)
1536. Suppression of the **smaller monasteries**. (Lesson 8, par. 12.)
Aske's rebellion ("The Pilgrimage of Grace"). (Lesson 9, pars. 2, 3.)
- 1538-40. Suppression of **greater monasteries**. (Lesson 9, par. 4.)
1538. The **Bible** translated by royal order, and a chained copy put in every parish church. (Lesson 9, par. 5.)
1540. Thomas Cromwell accused of treason and executed. (Lesson 9, pars. 7, 8.) **Birth of Francis Drake**. (Lesson 16, par. 5.)
1547. Henry died, and was succeeded by his son **Edward the Sixth**. (Lesson 11, par. 5.) The Duke of Somerset became Protector. (Lesson 11, par. 8.) Battle of **Pinkie**. (Lesson 12, par. 2.)
1548. The **first Prayer Book** of Edward the Sixth approved, and an Act of Uniformity passed. (Lesson 11, par. 10.) Three years later a second Prayer Book was approved, and a second Act of Uniformity was passed.
1549. **Ket's rebellion**. (Lesson 12, pars. 3-8.) **Fall of Somerset**. (Lesson 12, par. 9.)
1553. Edward the Sixth died, and **Mary**, daughter of Catherine of Aragon, came to the throne. (Lesson 12, par. 15.)
Bonner and Gardiner were released, and Mary began to undo the work of the Reformation. (Lesson 13, par. 3.)
1554. Wyatt's **rebellion**, and execution of **Lady Jane Grey**. (Lesson 13, par. 5.)
Mary married her cousin, **Philip of Spain**. (Lesson 13, par. 6.)
1555. The **persecution** of the Protestants began. Bishop Hooper was burned at Gloucester, Ridley and Latimer at Oxford. (Lesson 13, pars. 8, 9.)
1556. Cranmer burned. (Lesson 13, par. 10.)
1557. **Covenant** signed in Scotland. (Lesson 15, par. 4.)
1558. England joined Spain in a war against France, and in the course of it **Calais** was lost. Mary died, and was succeeded by her sister Elizabeth. (Lesson 13, par. 13.)

1561. Birth of **Francis Bacon**. (Lesson 20, par. 2.)
 1562. **The Thirty-nine Articles**. (Lesson 14, par. 5.)
 1564. Birth of **Shakespeare**. (Lesson 19, par. 4.)
 1565. Mary Queen of Scots **married** her cousin **Henry Darnley**.
 (Lesson 15, par. 6.)
 1566. Murder of **Rizzio**. (Lesson 15, par. 9.)
 1568. **Mary in England**. (Lesson 15, par. 11.)
 1569. **Rising of Roman Catholics** in the north. (Lesson 15, par. 14.)
 1572. **St. Bartholomew's Day**. (Lesson 15, par. 17.)
 1577-80. Drake **circumnavigated** the world. (Lesson 17, pars. 3-11.)
 1585. First settlement on **Roanoke Island**. (Lesson 23, par. 6.)
 1587. Second settlement on Roanoke Island. (Lesson 23, pars. 8-10.)
Execution of Mary Queen of Scots. (Lesson 15, par. 18.)
 1588. **The Spanish Armada**. (Lesson 18, pars. 3-9.)
 1595. Death of Drake. (Lesson 18, par. 11.)
 1601. **First Poor Law passed**. (Lesson 21, par. 15.)
 1603. Death of **Elizabeth** and **accession** of James the First. (Lesson
 22, par. 9.)
 1604. **Hampton Court Conference**. (Lesson 25, par. 5.)
 1605. **Gunpowder Plot**. (Lesson 32, par. 5.)
 1606. Parliament protested against "**monopolies**," and the **raising of**
duties on imported goods. (Lesson 26, pars. 9-12.)
 Charters of Virginia companies signed. (Lesson 24, par. 4.)
 1608. Birth of **Milton**. (Lesson 36, par. 3.)
 1609. Hudson River discovered. (Lesson 40, par. 8.)
 1610. **Dissolution** of James's first Parliament. (Lesson 26, pars. 9-12,
 and Lesson 27, par. 1.)
 Virginia firmly established. (Lesson 24, par. 10.)
 1614. **Addled Parliament** dissolved. (Lesson 27, par. 2.)
 1616. **Shakespeare died**. (Lesson 19, par. 6.)
 1618. **Thirty Years' War** began. (Lesson 27, par. 3.)
 1620. The **Pilgrim Fathers** arrive in America. (Lesson 25, pars.
 8-12.)
 1621. James **tore out the famous protest** from the journals of the
 House of Commons. (Lesson 27, par. 7.)
Bacon dismissed from office. (Lesson 20, par. 6.)
 1625. **James died and Charles the First succeeded**.
 1628. **Bunyan born**. (Lesson 36, par. 12.)
 1631. Stafford's "**thorough**" system. (Lesson 32, par. 8.)
 1634. **Ship-money** question. (Lesson 32, par. 11.)
 1637. The **Prayer Book** in Scotland. (Lesson 32, par. 12.)

1638. The **National Covenant**. (Lesson 32, par. 12.)
 1640. First meeting of **Long Parliament**. (Lesson 32, par. 14.)
 1641. Execution of **Strafford**. (Lesson 32, par. 6.)
 The Grand Remonstrance. (Lesson 33, par. 2.)
 1642. Attempted **arrest of the five members**. (Lesson 33, par. 3.)
 The **Militia Bill**. (Lesson 33, par. 3.)
 King's standard raised at Nottingham. (Lesson 33, par. 4.)
 1644. Marston Moor.
 1645. Execution of **Laud**. (Lesson 32, par. 14.)
 Battle of Naseby. (Lesson 33, par. 5.)
 1646. **Charles's surrender to the Scots**. (Lesson 33, par. 5.)
 1648. Pride's Purge. (Lesson 33, par. 10.)
 1649. **Trial and execution** of Charles. (Lesson 33, pars. 11-17.)
Commonwealth set up. (Lesson 34, par. 5.)
 "Eikon Basilike" (the "True Portrait" of the king) published.
 (Lesson 34, par. 6.)
 Reduction of Ireland. (Lesson 34, pars. 8-12.)
 1650. Battle of **Dunbar**. (Lesson 34, pars. 13-15.)
 1651. Battle of **Worcester**. (Lesson 35, par. 1.)
The Navigation Act. (Lesson 40, par. 12.)
 1652. **Dutch War** began. (Lesson 41, pars. 1, 2.)
 1653. **Expulsion of the Long Parliament**. (Lesson 35, pars. 2-4.)
 Cromwell, Lord Protector. (Lesson 35, par. 5.)
 1654. **Peace with Holland**. (Lesson 41, par. 2.)
 First Parliament of the United Kingdom. (Lesson 35, par. 6.)
Cromwell and the Waldenses. (Lesson 36, pars. 8, 9.)
 1658. Death of Cromwell. (Lesson 35, par. 8.)
 1659. Resignation of Richard Cromwell. (Lesson 35, par. 9.)
 1660. Monk summoned a Convention.
 The **Restoration**. (Lesson 35, par. 10.)
 Charles the Second began to reign, May 20.
Savoy Conference. (Lesson 38, par. 8.)
 1661. The **Clarendon Code** begun.
 Corporations Act. (Lesson 38, par. 9.)
 1662. The Act of Uniformity. (Lesson 38, par. 11.)
Bombay becomes a crown possession. (Lesson 41, par. 10.)
 1664. The Conventicle Act. (Lesson 38, par. 13.)
New Amsterdam captured, and called **New York**. (Lesson 41,
 par. 5.)
 1665. The Five Mile Act. (Lesson 38, par. 14.)
Great Plague. (Lesson 37, pars. 5-9.)

1665. War declared against Dutch. Drawn battle off Lowestoft. (Lesson 41, par. 3.)
1666. **Great Fire.** (Lesson 37, pars. 10-15.)
Dutch fleet sailed up Medway. (Lesson 41, par. 4.)
1667. Fall of **Clarendon.** (Lesson 39, pars. 1-4.)
1670. The **Secret Treaty of Dover** was made between Charles and Lewis the Fourteenth. By this treaty Lewis promised £200,000 a year to Charles if he would fight the Dutch and restore the Roman Catholic religion to Britain. (Lesson 39, par. 6.)
1672. Charles issued a **Declaration of Indulgence**, which suspended certain of the laws against Nonconformists. He was forced by Parliament to withdraw it. (Lesson 39, par. 7.)
1673. The **Test Act** was passed. (Lesson 39, par. 8.)
1674. Peace was made with Holland. (Lesson 39, par. 9.)
1677. **William of Orange married Mary**, eldest daughter of the Duke of York. (Lesson 39, par. 9.)
1678. The pretended Popish plot of Titus Oates caused a panic in the country. (Lesson 39, par. 10.)
1679. The Exclusion Bill. (Lesson 39, par. 11.)
Habeas Corpus Act passed. (Lesson 44, pars. 6, 7.)
1685. Charles the Second died, and was succeeded by **James the Second.** (Lesson 39, par. 12.)
Argyll's rebellion. (Lesson 42, pars. 10-14.)
Monmouth's Rebellion. He was defeated at **Sedgemoor**, and afterwards captured and executed. (Lessons 42, 43.)
To punish the rebels, Judge Jeffreys carried out the "Bloody Assize." (Lesson 43, par. 11.)
1687. James issued a **Declaration of Indulgence**, and ordered the clergy to read it in their churches. (Lesson 45, par. 1.)
Seven bishops presented a petition against this order. They were brought to **trial** and acquitted. (Lessons 44, 45.)
1688. **William of Orange** was invited by the chief nobles and statesmen to help them against James. (Lesson 45, par. 9.)
Death of Bunyan. (Lesson 36, par. 16.)
William landed at Torbay, and James was allowed to escape to France. (Lesson 45, par. 10.)
1689. A Convention met, declared the throne vacant, and drew up the **Declaration of Right.** (Lesson 45, pars. 12, 13.)
William and Mary were made joint-sovereigns of Great Britain and Ireland. (Lesson 45, par. 14.)

EVENTS OF SCOTTISH HISTORY, 1329-1587.

- 1329.** Death of King Robert the Bruce. (Lesson 14, par. 7.) He was succeeded by David the Second—a child.
- 1333.** Battle of **Halidon Hill**. **Edward Baliol**, son of King John Baliol, set on the throne. (Lesson 14, par. 7.)
- 1341.** David recovered his throne, and allied himself with France. (Lesson 14, par. 8.)
- 1346.** David invaded England. He was defeated and taken prisoner at **Nevil's Cross**. (Lesson 14, par. 9.)
- 1371.** David died, and was succeeded by Robert Stuart (Robert the Second). (Lesson 14, par. 10.)
- 1390.** Robert the Second died, and was succeeded by Robert the Third. (Lesson 14, par. 10.)
- 1405.** **Prince James of Scotland**, heir to the Scottish throne, captured by Henry. (Lesson 14, par. 11.)
- 1436.** Murder of James the First. (Lesson 14, par. 12.)
- 1488.** Overthrow of the Douglasses. Accession of James the Fourth. (Lesson 14, par. 13.)
- 1503.** **Princess Margaret**, eldest daughter of Henry the Seventh, **married to James the Fourth**. (Lesson 14, par. 13.)
- 1513.** Battle of **Flodden**. James the Fifth succeeded. (Lesson 14, par. 14.)
- 1530.** Birth of **John Knox**. (Lesson 15, par. 4.)
- 1542.** Battle of **Solway Moss**. Birth of Mary, afterwards Queen of Scots. Death of James the Fifth. (Lesson 14, par. 15.)
- 1544.** Battle of **Pinkie**. Mary sent to France. (Lesson 14, par. 16.)
- 1557.** The Scots signed the **First Covenant**. Two years later a second was signed. (Lesson 15, par. 4.)
- 1565.** Mary married Lord Darnley, her cousin. Soon after there was a Protestant rising in Scotland. (Lesson 15, par. 6.)
- 1566.** Murder of Rizzio. (Lesson 15, par. 8.)
- 1567.** Murder of Darnley. Mary married Bothwell. She was captured at Carberry Hill, imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, and forced to give up the crown to her infant son James. (Lesson 15, pars. 9, 10.)
- 1568.** Mary escaped from Lochleven Castle, but was defeated at **Langside**. She fled to England and sought the protection of Elizabeth. (Lesson 15, par. 11.)
- 1586.** Mary Queen of Scots was **tried by a court of peers**, and found guilty. (Lesson 15, par. 18.)
- 1587.** Mary **executed at Fotheringay**. (Lesson 15, par. 18.)

EVENTS OF IRISH HISTORY, 1169=1653.

1169. **Anglo-Norman conquest of Ireland.** (Lesson 28, pars. 3, 4.)
1171. **Henry the Second** acknowledged as **Lord of Ireland.** (Lesson 28, par. 4.)
1185. **John's conquest** of Ireland. The English Pale established (Lesson 28, par. 8.)
1314. **Edward Bruce** invaded Ireland. (Lesson 28, par. 11.)
1318. Defeat and death of Bruce at Dundalk. (Lesson 28, par. 11.)
1361. Lionel, Duke of Clarence, in Ireland. The **Statute of Kilkenny.** (Lesson 28, pars. 14, 15.)
1394. Richard the Second in Ireland. (Lesson 28, pars. 16, 17.)
1494. **Poynings' Acts** passed. (Lesson 29, par. 4.)
1535. Rebellion of "Silken Thomas." (Lesson 29, pars. 6, 7.)
1537. Execution of the Geraldines. (Lesson 29, par. 8.)
1553. Henry's power acknowledged throughout Ireland. (Lesson 29, par. 9.)
1559. Rising of **Shane O'Neill.** (Lesson 29, par. 14.)
1567. Murder of Shane O'Neill. (Lesson 30, par. 2.)
1578. The rising of the **Geraldines.** (Lesson 30, pars. 5, 6.)
1583. Capture and death of Earl of Desmond. (Lesson 30, par. 8.)
1594. Rising of **Hugh O'Neill**, Earl of Tyrone. (Lesson 30, par. 11.)
1598. Battle of the **Yellow Ford.** (Lesson 30, pars. 12, 13.)
1599. Essex in Ireland. (Lesson 30, pars. 14, 15.)
1601. Defeat of Tyrone. (Lesson 30, par. 16.)
1607. Flight of the Earls. (Lesson 31, par. 4.)
1610. **Plantation of Ulster.** (Lesson 31, pars. 5-7.)
1625. The graces of Charles the First. (Lesson 31, par. 10.)
- 1633-39. Strafford's system of "**Thorough.**" (Lesson 31, pars. 11, 12.)
1641. The Catholic rising and massacre of the Protestants. (Lesson 31, par. 13.)
1645. Charles made a treaty with the rebels, who became Royalists. (Lesson 31, par. 13.)
- 1649-50. **Cromwell** in Ireland. (Lesson 34, pars. 8-12.)
1653. The **Cromwellian Settlement.** (Lesson 34, par. 11.)



